

A volume in the
DOUGLASS SERIES IN EDUCATION,
edited by HARL R. DOUGLASS, Ph.D.,
formerly DIRECTOR OF THE COLLEGE OF EDUCATION,
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TEACHER EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES

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Preface

The purpose of this book is to help achieve excellence in teacher education. It is intended both for the student of the field and for all who are concerned in any way with the selection and preparation of teachers at either the collegiate or in-service stages. The authors have endeavored to present a concise, yet comprehensive, overview of the dimensions and pertinent developments in teacher education in the United States. Current issues are placed in perspective with changing concepts that grow out of a variety of forces, both old and new, which shape the character of programs of teacher education in different kinds of institutions of higher learning. The basic purpose of *Teacher Education in the United States* is to provide a background of information and facts with which the study and redesign of teacher education programs may be advanced.

The status of teacher education in the United States is examined in Part I. In a picture of the unique role of teacher education in a democratic society, recognized strengths and weaknesses are identified along with some of the major forces that now influence the preparation of teachers for elementary and secondary schools. Part II, Organization and Administration of Teacher Education, catalogues the variety of national, regional, and local groups that influence the education of teachers. Institutions for teacher education are classified to show the relative impor-

tance of the contribution of each kind of college or university, and the different patterns for teacher education are identified. Policies on such important matters as recruitment, selection, and admission to programs of preparation for teaching are analyzed in terms of their effect on the quality of teachers. In the six chapters of Part III, the characteristics of the pre-service program of teacher education are presented, while the important post-baccalaureate professional development of the teachers forms the contents of Part IV. The final section of the book, Part V, deals with current problems and prospects in teacher education.

Aroused to the importance of quality in schools, the United States public is raising important questions about the selection and preparation of teachers for elementary and secondary schools. The nation-wide concern for teacher education is being expressed in numerous ways, ranging from intemperate, negative attempts to systematic, cooperative, positive efforts to redesign completely the programs of teacher education. Regardless of the tone or approach of the various criticisms, their implications are inescapable: teacher education can no longer be accorded second-class status in colleges and universities, nor should it be left to the sole jurisdiction of any group of professionals.

The criticisms of teacher education that are common today are not new. Some represent the remnants of a century-long protest against the professionalization of teaching. Most of the charges, however, had their origin in the thoughtful analyses and early research of individuals whose central and professional concern was with the preparation of teachers—professors of education in colleges and universities, specialists in teacher education in state departments of public instruction, and leaders responsible for the in-service education of teachers in local school systems.

Long before the current anxiety for the quality of our educational programs—in the 1930's in fact—the Commission on Teacher Education stimulated numerous studies to strengthen the preparation of teachers. World War II cut short what many informed observers believed was the begin-

ning of a great forward thrust toward excellence in teacher education in the United States. Following the war, before the professional educators who were leading this movement were able to recapture lost momentum, they found themselves the scapegoats of a concentrated movement that indicted them for the very weaknesses they had earlier identified, publicized, and sought to correct. *The attacks came so swiftly, as well as with such bitterness and unfairness in some places, and were welcomed so eagerly by the public that many in teacher education became defensive of the status quo rather than the vigorous leaders for change they had been a decade earlier.*

Fortunately, as is always the case when truth is free to combat error, reason is returning to efforts to strengthen the quality of teacher education. Thoughtful and sincere professors in academic fields as well as specialists in education are bypassing the long-pursued, often bitter but fruitless, synthetic debate over pedagogy versus subject-matter. Instead, they are cooperatively directing their energies and resources toward remedying the weaknesses and preserving the strengths in programs of teacher education. As they do, both groups gain added respect for the contributions that each can and must make to the total process of teacher education.

Appreciation is expressed by the authors to leaders in teacher education throughout the United States for information they so willingly provided. Particular thanks are due to colleagues at the University of Wisconsin and the University of Colorado who assisted in ways too numerous to mention. Special recognition is accorded to Dr. Jay S. Shivers, Mr. Ronald W. Ady, and Dr. Daniel S. Parkinson who, while they were serving as research assistants at the University of Wisconsin, collected and assembled material for several chapters.

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Part I

STATUS OF TEACHER EDUCATION
IN THE UNITED STATES

CHAPTER 1

Unique Role of Teacher Education in American Democracy

The education which a nation provides for its teachers is integrally related to the nature of its society and the functions and responsibilities that the society assigns to its schools. Programs of teacher preparation, like the systems of education they serve, can rarely be imported; instead, they are indigenous to the cultures they represent. Consequently, the study of teacher education in the United States should give first consideration to the unique characteristics of American democracy and to the system of public education designed to support its perpetuation.

In this first chapter, therefore, attention is given to the basic nature of our democracy and the fundamental principles of human relationships that we seek to foster. The chapter also identifies the major emphases required in educational programs to maintain and extend our system of self-government and individual freedom; and it considers briefly the predominating perceptions regarding the role of the teacher in democratic schools. Finally, attention is turned to the impact that our conceptions of society, schools,

and the work of teachers exert upon programs of teacher education.

NATURE OF OUR DEMOCRACY AND ITS FUNDAMENTAL PRINCIPLES

Democracy, as conceived and developed in the United States, is distinctive in the respect, the equality of civic and economic opportunity, and the personal freedom accorded to the individual. At the same time, our way of life encourages a greater degree of interdependence and demands more initiative, as well as greater cooperation and attention to human relationships, than does any other system of government.

OUR RESPECT FOR THE INDIVIDUAL AND HIS FREEDOM. An economic system that provides standards of living far surpassing those existing elsewhere has arisen with unparalleled rapidity within the framework of American democracy. The fundamental tenet of this democracy has been belief in the individual—recognition of his rights and respect for his individuality and personality. That we hold this is indicated not only by the degree to which general suffrage is provided for in the Constitution of the United States, but also by the rapidity with which suffrage has been extended to all citizens, as would be expected in a democratic republic.

Our basic commitment to individual rights was expressly set forth in the first ten Amendments (Bill of Rights), adopted as an integral part of the Constitution. The belief in the individual and the responsibility of government—national, state, and local—to individuals, collectively and separately, sharply set off our democracy from types of undemocratic governments, especially the totalitarian governments and dictatorships that exist today in many nations throughout the world.

EQUALITY OF CIVIC OPPORTUNITY. A confirmed and universal belief in freedom for the individual and in providing equal opportunity for every person is evident not only in our constitutions and laws, but indeed throughout our cul-

ture and life. This liberty is rarely restricted, and then only in clear-cut cases in which the common good must be served. Equally provided are freedom to move about, to express one's self, to congregate, to use one's property, and, particularly, freedom within one's own home. Our freedom of expression is so generally accepted that one frequently hears the protestation, "I'll say what I want to. I am an American citizen."

Except in a few and diminishing number of areas, the American citizen may cast a secret ballot without being intimidated or restricted in the exercise of his right to vote. Likewise, an adult citizen is not restricted legally from becoming a candidate for public office. In addition, the amendments to the national Constitution guarantee the rights to assemble, to petition, and to protect the individual from invasion of the privacy of his home without cause and due process of law.

Our belief in the equality of men comprehends the freedom of every individual, regardless of race, religion, or other differentiating characteristics, to improve himself, economically, socially, and politically. It is this belief that gives rise to the expression, and indeed the fairly general idea, that any boy or girl could become president of the United States.

EQUALITY OF ECONOMIC OPPORTUNITY. The same sort of principles influenced our thinking about the possibilities of rising in the economic world. Each boy or girl possessing required abilities may reasonably hope to become a leader in economic or political affairs, occupy a position of prestige, and accumulate considerable wealth. In the economic and vocational field, our democracy has advanced far toward making occupations and other economic opportunities open to all on the basis of qualifications and effectiveness, and regardless of color, sex, race, or religion.

OUR INTERDEPENDENCE. As the result both of our democratic structure and of the pattern of our economic development, individuals and groups are at the same time greatly independent and greatly interdependent. Individuals and

groups of individuals operating as corporations or noncorporate groups, within the restrictions, legal or otherwise, established for the common good and for protection, have great freedom to operate relatively independently. Nevertheless, each individual or group is interdependent with other individuals and groups.

The opportunity to work and the opportunity in general to progress economically have greatly depended upon what is done by other individuals and groups operating within their democratic rights. An oversupply or an undersupply of goods influences prices and job opportunities. The purchasing power of individuals creates the opportunities for those with goods and services to sell; it very definitely affects the job opportunities, wages, and economic security of others. When any considerable number of individuals or groups do not prosper economically, the economic well-being of all the nation, or of the greater part of it, is likely to be jeopardized.

This interdependent economic development has been the logical consequence of a widening of markets and of the specialization by individuals and groups in production. In the early decades of our national life, people in one state, even in one community, were little affected by the economic activities and the success and failure of people in other states or communities. Each community produced most of its own foods and other essential goods. Since that time, however, widespread national and international markets have developed with a very complex economic structure. Automobiles, for example, are produced and sold on a national basis; and what happens to the automobile industry affects life in every state in the union. Similarly, clothing, cosmetics, hardware, and all other goods are produced and distributed largely on a national basis.

Economic complexity has developed to such an extent that, influenced largely by the depression and a possibility of its recurrence and by the danger of runaway inflation, the federal government has assumed greatly increased responsibility for shaping the conditions that may contribute to

national depression or prosperity. Credits and interest rates are controlled on a national basis. Employment and unemployment are controlled, or at least markedly affected, by national policies and expenditures. These developments were experimental in the 1930's and were indeed anathema to many anti-New Dealers, who wished to cling to the independence and individualism of the nineteenth century. Today, however, a Republican administration operates much on the same principles as did the New Deal because it recognizes its responsibility for the general welfare and its opportunities to help maintain favorable conditions in such a highly interdependent economic society.

INITIATIVE AND COOPERATION. Our culture, particularly in the economic sphere and in the related political life and activity, puts a premium both upon individuality and cooperation, upon initiative and conformity. In our industrial life as well as in our homes and in our political life, success and efficiency are dependent upon cooperation and conformity to accepted principles and standards. Our corporations and large industries are outstanding examples of developments which would be possible only through cooperation of stockholders, management, and labor. Corporations and labor unions are examples of cooperative organization for improving the lot of restricted groups of individuals.

This balance of cooperation and individualism and the need for such a balance replaced the extreme individualism that characterized our life in the nineteenth century and well into the twentieth century. Only when it was clearly revealed that individualism could not attain the heights of economic development and living standards desired by our people and still avoid depression and economic blight did our culture move more definitely to the better balance of individuality and cooperativeness.

EVOLUTIONARY CHARACTER OF AMERICAN DEMOCRACY. Another important and somewhat unique characteristic of American democracy is its evolutionary nature. Our national and our state constitutions provide for changes. While radical changes are difficult to make, the possibility

of evolution is assured. The constant change that takes place in all aspects of society and individual lives is inherent structurally. This change, which we believe constitutes progress, but which sometimes includes unfavorable developments, presents a definite challenge to individuals, groups, and social institutions because of their responsibility to adjust to new patterns of change. One could readily cite many important types of change in American life that have been taking place in recent decades.¹

EVOLUTION IN HUMAN RELATIONSHIPS. Of great importance for education, including the education of teachers, has been the marked change in the fundamental ideas related to practices in human relations. Until recent decades we lived in an anomalous situation in which much authoritarianism was apparent in various aspects of our avowed democratic society. Authoritarianism existed in the home in the relations between parents and children; in industry, between employers and employed; in the armed services, and in various other aspects of American life. Gradually, however, a new and rapidly growing concept of cooperative approach to the making of decisions has been replacing authoritarianism. This development is observable in many areas of life, including the school. Children in the home, employees in business and industry, students in school, and teachers—all have a larger voice in planning their own activities. This pronounced trend has important implications not only for curriculum and methods of teaching but also for educational administration and supervision as well as for the education of teachers and administrators.

ROLE OF EDUCATION IN OUR DEMOCRACY

As indicated in the foregoing pages, our citizens, and indeed our children and youth who have not yet become old enough to be full-fledged participants in our democracy, have

¹ For a complete enumeration of the changes in American life materially significant for educational programs, see "The Curriculum and Changing American Life," Chapter 6 in *The High School Curriculum* by Earl R. Douglass and others (New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1956).

an important part to play in determining the course of their own lives and the lives of all of us. Their participation is not only seen in the field of government, through the exercise of the right to vote, but is evidenced also in the forms of social intercourse and the expression of our ideas as well as in the informal cooperative activities of human beings in business, social life, leisure, home living, and all areas of life.

NEED FOR CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION. In totalitarian societies or nondemocratic countries, educational programs may safely concentrate upon increasing the effectiveness of individuals in production and warfare without reference to developing their abilities to make decisions. In a democracy such as ours, however, there is a distinct necessity for education of a wide, broad, and effective type that will develop the appropriate ideals, attitudes, interests, intellectual skills, information, and understanding to assure, as definitely as possible, the intelligent and effective participation of all individuals in the decision-making processes that govern us. As many of our presidents and other national leaders have said, democracy without adequate education of its citizens is an experiment fraught with great dangers and likely to lead to the deterioration and demise of democracy, even though its forms may give a pretense of democratic structure. In the words of President James Madison, "Democracy without popular education is prologue either to farce or to tragedy, perhaps to both."² In the United States we are therefore committed to the education of all our young people for intelligent citizenship. Indeed this purpose is the first and the most important responsibility of, and challenge to, public education.

It is quite clear that if democracy is to succeed and continue to be effective the people must not abdicate their political responsibilities in favor of the professional politicians. In other words, to assure the functioning of democracy and

² Saul K. Padover (ed.), *The Complete Madison. His Basic Writings* (New York: Harper & Bros., 1953), p. 337.

the well-being of people in general, there must be an interested and intelligent evaluation of the important issues by informed citizens capable of discussing upon any occasion the problems—economic, political, and otherwise—affecting the community, state, nation, and world.

OTHER AREAS OF EDUCATIONAL NEEDS. We can plainly see that our national well-being is closely tied up with the nature, quality, and amount of education of all our people. For our welfare, perhaps our survival, depends upon producing a sufficient number of well-trained specialists in the fields of law, medicine, dentistry, science, engineering, business, journalism, and education. Furthermore, our national well-being depends not only upon educating specialists in the professions but also upon preparing specialists who are capable of effectively discharging their responsibilities in all fields—in the factories, on the farms, in clerical service, and elsewhere.

The national well-being clearly depends upon individuals who can independently and effectively discharge their responsibilities and opportunities as consumers.

Our national strength depends also upon developing a future generation of people with the moral education adequate to insure behavior favorable to the common good, which will promote decreases in crime and immoral conduct and contribute materially to political and economic honesty.

Our national health and happiness depend upon the capability of all persons to spend their leisure time, so rapidly increasing in recent decades, in ways which are not only pleasurable but also conducive to good health and the development and conservation of moral character.

Furthermore, it is quite clear that, in the interest of the nation, education must prepare fathers and mothers not only for maintaining the family as a functioning economic and social unit of society, but also for intelligent and effective parenthood. This preparation is especially important in times when materialism and the communications sent out over our mass media constitute danger to the development of favorable and appropriate ideals, character, and healthy personalities.

It might be added that our democratic state depends greatly upon sound mental and physical health. In the attainment of this goal education plays a tremendously important role.

Thus, we see that in our democracy the goals of education must be broad. They must include education for citizenship; education for vocational effectiveness; education for effective, healthful, satisfying home life; education for satisfying and socially acceptable leisure; education for economic effectiveness; and education for physical, mental, and emotional health.

EDUCATION OF ALL YOUNG PEOPLE. Our educational planning and educational programs must be thought through in order that they may assure an appropriate education for the most capable young people as well as an appropriate education for those less educable than the average. In countries in which secondary education is provided only for a selected minority, emphasis may be placed upon programs for persons most capable of academic learning. But in a democracy such as ours, educational programs must be planned not only for talented youth but for all American children and all American youth. The educational programs must be sufficiently diversified in nature to provide learnings for the present and the future needs of all types of people and must use learning and instructional materials and activities adapted and adjusted to young people of the whole gamut of abilities—academic, aesthetic, scientific, mechanical, and otherwise—as well as the whole gamut of interests.

While the program of education in the United States must be of excellent quality, the definition of "quality" will depend upon the learner clientele for whom the quality is intended. In England, for example, quality in education for secondary schools, most of whose students are selected at the age of eleven or twelve on the basis of academic ability, means an excellent program for academically bright youth. In America, on the other hand, quality in education must mean programs adapted to many types of individuals and consequently include provisions for the most academically capable, the less capable, and groups varying sig-

nificantly in interests, backgrounds, and foreseeable future needs.

EDUCATION FOR INDIVIDUATION AND FOR COOPERATION. In view of the cooperative and the individualistic nature of our society and of our activities in that society, it is clear that our educational program must provide for the development of those skills, attitudes, interests, and ideals that will insure cooperation and adjustment of individuals to one another and of individuals to groups. At the same time, the educational program must develop initiative and individual thinking and creative interests, abilities, skills, habits, and ideals.

EDUCATION FOR SOCIAL CHANGE. Education in the United States must also assure young people of preparation for social change. This responsibility requires that they be educated for both adaptability and leadership, for both conservatism and progressivism. They must be given a background for evaluating changing forces and developments in the structure of our society so that they may be able to decide wisely when to oppose some change, when to give full cooperation to others, and indeed when to attempt to redirect still other changes. Education in our society does not mean education solely for docilely drifting with every change, nor does it mean the education only of conformists; it means education for leadership in change and, indeed, for opposition to change which seems undesirable.

Educational programs must be thought through clearly, not only in terms of social conditions existing at the time, but also in terms of foreseeable trends; for, as Henry Adams says, education must certainly not prepare us to live in the past or even in the present but must prepare us to live in the future as it is likely to be.³

ROLE OF THE TEACHER IN AMERICAN DEMOCRACY

The role of the teacher, then, is to provide leadership in learning situations that will enable young people to grow

³ Henry Cabot Lodge (ed.), *The Education of Henry Adams* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1918), p. 20.

in the right directions and prepare them to live in American democracy in such a way as to bring about the maximum of personal happiness and make the maximum contribution to the welfare of their society.

All growth is determined by heredity and environment. Within the inherited framework, there is, in the case of the human being, ample opportunity for determining growth capacity and future behavior.

EDUCATION AS GROWTH IN A BROAD SENSE. Unfortunately, desirable future behavior is not assured merely by the transmission and acquisition of knowledge, although the acquisition of knowledge may provide a splendid and necessary foundation for desirable growth. Many persons hold the narrow view that education is the acquisition of knowledge and that knowledge is little more than the acquisition of school-subject facts and skills. On the contrary, careful analysis of what constitutes desirable growth and the conditions under which it takes place reveals that the educational process must be broadly conceived. In addition to the acquisition of knowledge and understanding, growth in other areas must be provided.

In order to live happily and successfully in our American society, or in any but a totalitarian society or one subject to dictatorship, one must develop (1) social, physical, and intellectual skills; (2) social, physical, and intellectual habits; (3) appropriate personal and social ideals; (4) appropriate personal and social attitudes; and (5) appropriate intellectual, social, and leisure interests.

Therefore, the learning situations provided in American schools not only must make it possible for young people to achieve growth in these skills and interests but also must give assurance that this development will take place. If such growth is attained, we may feel confident that our youth will behave appropriately in their activities as citizens, as workers, as home members, as individuals with leisure, and as individuals with problems in many areas. As John Ruskin said nearly a century ago on the floor of the House of Commons in England, "Education is not so much learning what we ought to know as it is coming to behave as we

ought to behave."⁴ Consequently, the task of the teacher definitely is to provide such experience as will insure the best possible behavior in the kinds of activities in which young people will engage and in the situations they will undoubtedly face. This, of course, means that effective education for life in modern American society requires a broad variety of rich educational experiences; for a democratic society can be assured of continued existence and of good government only if its citizens possess knowledge, wisdom, habits, and skills and if they are motivated by appropriate ideals and attitudes.

COUNSELING AS EDUCATION. The role of the teacher in American schools is not confined to that of instructor in classroom subjects. Individual students bring to the teacher many problems for which they themselves are unable to find workable answers. These problems are concerned with a variety of situations; they include vocational, educational, personal, social, moral, and religious matters. Thus, the teacher in the American school, unlike his counterpart in secondary schools in most other countries, occupies the role of counselor as well as instructor.

It has become evident that counseling, particularly in vocational, educational, social, and personal fields, can greatly help young people to grow and to attain the larger objectives of education. In this kind of counseling, the teacher not only attempts to answer questions raised by individual students but tries to develop in young people the right approach to, and the effective skills for, the solving of problems of any type. In addition to individual counseling of students, group counseling in homerooms, in core programs, in classrooms in general, and in many group situations is often very effective and makes material contributions to desirable growth.

EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES AS EDUCATION. The role of the American teacher also includes direction and supervi-

⁴ *The Crown of Wild Olive* (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1890), p. 89.

sion of class learning activities, such as student clubs, interscholastic sports, journalistic activities, forensic activities, musical activities, and other group projects. The students' experiences in these activities will obviously affect their acquisition of knowledge; of understandings; of physical, intellectual, and social skills; and of desirable habits, ideals, attitudes, and interests. If skillfully and intelligently directed, participation in extraclass activities will result in important contributions to the desired growth.

The role of the teacher in American society today also involves setting up and managing situations that will provide opportunities for developing skills and habits in group planning. In a society in which group planning plays as important a part as it does in our American democracy, classroom work and extraclassroom activities must definitely provide for group planning.

THE TEACHER AS TRANSMITTER OF OUR SOCIAL HERITAGE. In the transmission of our culture, the teacher has an important role. Our cultural heritage must not be so narrowly conceived as consisting entirely, or almost exclusively, of academic knowledge, particularly that found only in books. Important parts of our culture are the various habits and customs which have proved desirable because of their contributions to our well-being and happiness, the maintenance of our ideals, the building of social attitudes, and the development of skills in interpersonal, social relationships. In other words, the school affords splendid opportunities for the teacher to arrange and direct experiences through which a living social culture, inherited from past generations, will be transmitted to our young people.

As a result of the alarmingly diminished opportunity for parents to transmit the social heritage to the children within their home, "culture transmission" has become an increasingly and critically important function of the school and of the role of the teacher. As society has become stratified according to age levels, parents see less and less of their children. Each generation is preoccupied with its own social activities, or, when sharing an occupation, parents and chil-

tion, understanding, and intellectual skills upon which to draw in their planning and managing of students' learning activities. This preparation is necessary particularly for secondary-school teachers, but is also needed, to considerable extent, by elementary-school teachers.

Obviously the subject-matter education of teachers needs to be thought through quite clearly and not formulated merely in terms of so many hours of credit in designated fields. Formulation of the program must consider which of the subject-matter courses prospective teachers should be urged or required to pursue because of the contributions of the courses to professional effectiveness.

PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION. Experience, as well as theoretical considerations, has shown clearly, especially in American schools, that, for a teacher to make the most of his potentialities, he must have had opportunity to acquire knowledge, understandings, theories, ideas, and skills in planning courses of study, in planning and directing learning activities in class subjects, in counseling, and in appropriate extraclass activities. To operate at a professional level, the teacher must be able to appraise the contributions that various alternatives in learning materials and activities are likely to make to the objectives of education: the objectives of education in general, the objectives of a particular subject, and the objectives of the units of learning at hand.

Teacher education in the United States must give special attention to the nature of human growth and development. Whether acquired through books and discussions or through observation and experience with students in the classroom learning situation, the American teacher must be provided with an understanding of the way in which young people behave, how they may be motivated, and how growth of all sorts takes place. Without this understanding, teachers cannot plan learning and instructional materials and experience for their students.

Furthermore, the effective program of teacher education must provide some understanding of the principles of mental health and mental hygiene. Teachers should know

enough about mental health to enable them to provide learning and social situations that would not endanger or impair but actually promote mental and emotional health.

Effective professional preparation of teachers involves, of course, backgrounds in the philosophy of education, in sociology of education, educational psychology, course-of-study construction, counseling and guidance, evaluation (including tests and measurements), management of extracurricular activities, community relations, secondary and/or elementary education, methods of teaching the subjects in which the teacher will give instruction, and student or intern teaching. Futile discussion of whether methods or subject matter is more important does not engage individuals who understand and appreciate the actual situation. Both methods and subject matter are tremendously important and absolutely necessary, but training in professional courses should consist largely of materials and learnings that go beyond the techniques of classroom methods.

GENERAL EDUCATION OF TEACHERS. Also essential is the general education of the teacher. Every teacher should be broadly educated. A broad general education not only gives meaning to the subjects taught, but also enables the teacher to be at home in the world in which he and students live and, as far as possible, the world in which they will live in the decades to come.

The adequacy of general education cannot be measured by units of credit in certain prestige subjects, such as mathematics, foreign language, history, and literature. Whatever the subjects involved, the adequacy of general education must be measured in terms of the degree to which it provides a background that will enable the teacher to understand, appreciate, and evaluate the current culture with its issues, problems, and trends.

CONTINUOUS EDUCATION OF TEACHERS. The educational program for teachers ought to lead to continuous learning. Under any condition, as new knowledge becomes available and life changes, continued learning is a necessity for the teacher. The necessity for continuous learning is apparent

in the case of the subject taught by the teacher, of knowledge in general, of knowledge in the fields of education and teaching, and of the whole broad areas of life in the American culture. Recent years have seen great changes in the conditions of life and great and significant contributions to knowledge. These contributions to knowledge have developed more rapidly in the last ten years than in the previous quarter-century, more rapidly in the past quarter-century than in the century before that, more rapidly in the past century than in the preceding 500 or 600 years, and more in the last 500 years than in all the centuries since the birth of Christ. A statement made by Robert Gordon Sproul, until recently president of the University of California, expresses aptly the need for continuous education:

Nothing has handicapped the American educational plan more than the tendency of American citizens to think of schooling as a kind of vaccination against ignorance, and to consider that a concentrated dose of it in youth makes one immune for a lifetime. Actually, the immunity lasts only a few years, and unless it is renewed by periodic inoculations in study and thinking, one falls victim to a chronic type of ignorance which is often more dangerous than the acute form, because the patient, incompetent to recognize the symptoms, doesn't know he has the disease. We meet such chronic sufferers from ignorance everywhere. They look all right on the outside . . . But inside, their minds are suffering from atrophy. Instead of thinking through problems in the light of all available facts, they merely supply a pattern of opinions based on facts that went out of date along with their yellowing diplomas, and liberally garnished with prejudices that have accumulated in their minds like broken furniture in an attic.⁵

The adequate education of teachers has been seriously limited by the four-year collegiate structure. The impossibility of crowding into four years a broad general education, a suitable background in the subjects to be taught, and an effective preparation in professional education has led to frustration and to conflict between the subject-matter specialists and the professional education specialists. The subject-matter specialists have particularly resented the necessity of taking the time away from continued training in

⁵ *Lifelong Learning*, 9 (October, 1933), p. 12.

subject matter in order to give training in professional subjects. General education has been given only a "lick and a promise," having been greatly condensed by the demand for subject-matter training and professional education.

Even when five years comes to be accepted as the minimum preparation for elementary and secondary-school teachers, there will be a necessity for continued learning-on-the-job in all three of the major areas: subject-matter education, professional education, and general education. Indeed, careful students of the education of teachers consider it impossible to prepare teachers adequately in pre-service programs; they believe that there must be continuous education of teachers after they enter service both through in-service programs on the job and by additional attendance at institutions of higher education.

Because of the increasing recognition of the necessity for a more continual and comprehensive education of teachers, local administrators have allowed salary and promotion premiums for the fifth year of education and have provided for professional libraries, lectures, and workshops for teachers before the opening of school in the fall and during the entire year.

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CHAPTER 2

Current Issues

Criticisms of education and of teachers have been heard since the early establishment of schools in the United States. Parents have always been inclined to compare the standards and the achievements of their children with the recollections of their own accomplishments. The comparisons have been influenced, to some extent at least, by the desire of the parents to appear well-educated and their natural inclination to give credit for their fine education to the supposedly higher standards existing in the early schools.

RECENT CRITICISM OF TEACHER EDUCATION

In recent years, particularly since the early 1940's, criticisms of education have become more general and more vigorous. Furthermore, the criticisms seem to be national rather than local, as is indicated by the large number of editorial comments on education published by newspapers in various sections of the country and by journals of national circulation.

Then, too, these criticisms have been concerned not merely with the curriculum, methods, and standards of the schools and with the work of teachers. Rather, many of the critics have attributed the alleged weaknesses to faults in professional teacher education. In at least some instances, the facts of the situation seem to indicate that criticism of

the schools has grown out of the desire to discredit professors of education.

Regardless of motives or the nature of the criticism, the widely disseminated charges against the schools and against teacher education should be examined with great care and objectivity by educational leaders, particularly those concerned directly with professional education of teachers.

On the other hand, there have been in the colleges and universities a considerable number of subject-matter specialists who have made serious attempts to keep abreast of the knowledge about education and to develop and maintain contacts with teachers in their fields. These men and women not only have gained better understanding of the modern theories and practices in education but have been more sympathetic with them and, in some cases, have approved of them. Such specialists also have had friendly and cordial relationships with their colleagues engaged in the professional education of teachers.

Some of the criticisms voiced against schools and against teacher education are discussed briefly in the following paragraphs.

USURPATION OF THE FUNCTION OF THE HOME. The charge has been made that the schools have taken over many of the responsibilities of the home and that they are attempting to detach the children from home influences. This tendency, according to some major critics, is attributable to the philosophy of education which has been instilled in many teachers in their professional education courses.

NEGLECT OF THE BRIGHT CHILD. The launching of the sputniks, which caught our military space-ship designers with their rockets down and re-emphasized the importance of highly refined intelligence in the space age, brought forth much criticism of the "neglect of the able student." Vigorously expressed has been the charge that the curriculum in the schools today has been "watered down" until the bright child is not challenged but is, indeed, bored and consequently develops unfortunate work attitudes and habits.

This charge is leveled at both elementary and secondary schools.

The critics making this charge aim at the practice of promoting every child automatically a grade a year—a policy which, they say, removes the indispensable stimulus of fear of failure. Then, according to these critics, the curriculum is designed largely to meet the needs of the mass of students and the inferior students whose low grade norms require that they receive the major share of attention.

The claim is frequently made that current high-school graduates do not do as well in college as did former students and/or that public high-school graduates do not achieve as well as their counterparts from nonpublic schools.

In spite of the sweeping nature of these charges, institutions of teacher education certainly need to re-examine their entire programs of teacher preparation to see if proper emphasis is being placed on the education of bright children. Without doubt, the relative advantages and limitations and the techniques of identifying and teaching talented children and youths need to be studied and taught with greater care and thoroughness.

INADEQUATE PREPARATION IN SUBJECTS TAUGHT. Teachers in the secondary school often are said to be inadequately prepared in the particular subjects that they are attempting to teach. This criticism must be carefully examined.

Actually, in each of a number of states there are many teachers—a distinct minority, to be sure—who do not possess the minimum requisite academic knowledge of the subject they are teaching in the high school. This condition may be attributed to a number of factors: (1) the narrow breadth of subject-matter training in college majors and minors; (2) the large number of subjects and combinations of subjects in which the teacher must give instruction in many small secondary schools; (3) the great shortage of teachers, particularly in the physical sciences and in mathematics; (4) the unsound practice of assigning teachers to classes which they are not adequately prepared to teach: this practice is found principally in small schools and

results largely from lack of care in employing a staff with subject-matter preparation sufficiently balanced for the classes to be taught by qualified teachers; and (5) the out-of-date subject knowledge of some teachers in fields such as chemistry and physics.

ANTI-INTELLECTUALISM. An important type of critic might be referred to as the "classical intellectual" individual concerned primarily, if not exclusively, with education in the academic or classical tradition. This concern has been characteristic not only of the writings of educators, such as Alfred Lynd, Mortimer Smith, and Arthur Bestor, but also of the articles of a considerable number of popular authors—Dorothy Thompson, for example. In a published article, Bestor¹ attempts to support the charge that a great many teachers in the schools, and perhaps a large majority of administrators and professors of education, are not interested in the intellectual development of their students but indeed deliberately neglect or ignore that development.

The term "intellectualism" has various meanings. To some, for example, it may mean the memorization of historical facts; to others, it may be the development of intellectual attitudes and ideals. Critics charging the schools with anti-intellectualism seem not to be concerned greatly about attempts to develop also the emotional, social, and physical attributes of the child; they seem to assume that those interested in seeking outcomes in addition to refinement of intellectual traits do not adequately appreciate the over-all importance of intellectual growth. Some of these critics are also very critical of the teaching and research that is being done upon any phases of education other than learning. Lynd cites, as horrible examples, articles in journals of school administration under such titles as "Can School Expenditures for Public Relations Be Justified?," "Cooperative Occupational Training," "Work Experience," "Classroom Ventilation Requirements," and "The State's

¹ Arthur Bestor, "Anti-intellectualism in the Schools," *New Republic*, January 19, 1953

Part in Financing Education." These topics, says Lynd, do not reflect intellectual research. Bestor, in his *Educational Wastelands*, has a sarcastic chapter on "Research, It Is Wonderful."

In spite of the absurdity and superficiality of such attempts to justify the charge of anti-intellectualism in the schools, the criticism itself must be rigorously examined. Those responsible for teacher education must ascertain whether anything included in the education of teachers actually tends to diminish the effectiveness of teachers and administrators in developing the intellectual capacities of young people while they are working toward other types of important outcomes.

OVEREMPHASIS UPON METHODS. A time-worn cliché that has received much more attention than it deserves is that teacher education should put much more attention and time upon "learning what to teach rather than on learning how to teach." The answer to this criticism is threefold: first, the statement is definitely true; second, prospective teachers always spend more time in college in learning what to teach; and third, it is not a question of either/or, but that teachers should certainly be well-prepared in subject matter and in basic principles; and also have developed attitudes, ideals, interests, skills, and command of pedagogical information which will enable them to perform well in the classroom. A fourth point is that only a minor part of the time spent in courses in education has to do with methods of education, for these courses deal also with the basic philosophy of education, the school and society, the history of education, measurement and evaluation, child growth and psychology, learning, guidance, co-curricular activities, school organization and control, support and financing of education in the United States, and many other topics and areas in which the intelligent teacher needs to be well oriented and informed if he is to be more than a technician at the skilled trade level.

Nevertheless, teacher education should be planned and built up in such a manner that there will not be a relative

overemphasis on the detailed techniques. Indeed, teaching is more an art than it is a trade or science. In other words, every situation encountered in the classroom is to some extent a novel one. The effective teacher meets these situations not by merely drawing out of a reservoir a specific technique for a specific situation, but by using knowledge of all aspects of education and planning an effective approach to each situation as it arises. Upon no other basis can teaching be of the best quality or a profession of education be established.²

DUPLICATION AND LACK OF CONTENT IN EDUCATION COURSES. Unquestionably, in many institutions there has been, and still exists, a greater amount of duplication in courses in education than is really defensible on the ground that appropriate repetition and cross-reference has learning value. A considerable amount of duplication also exists from course to course in history, literature, science, mathematics, foreign language, and indeed every subject; yet the fact that duplication exists in education courses has been exploited by critics to bolster their charge that there is lack of content in the education courses. This accusation is likely to be voiced most frequently by those who have little or no knowledge of the content of courses in education and by those who select unfortunate isolated examples of excessive duplication to cite as representative of general practice. Either intentionally or unconsciously, these critics frequently refer to duplications in courses which are not supposed to be taken by the same individual but which are prepared to meet the needs of different groups of individuals—high-school principals, counselors, and elementary-school principals; therefore, these courses intentionally include materials which overlap from one course to another.

Duplication in courses is very likely to be found in any subject that is relatively new and rapidly growing, particularly in applied fields. Every two or three years each de-

² In the preparation of teachers in Russia greater emphasis is placed upon methods than is the practice in the United States.

partment, school, or college of education should examine the content of all its courses in order that (1) excessive or undesirable duplication may be kept to a minimum and (2) a disproportionate amount of time may not be spent upon some items in the courses.

UN SOUND THEORIES AND LACK OF RESEARCH. The charge has been made that unsound and untested theories abound in the field of education. This charge is usually championed by individuals whose theories of education are at variance with those which underlie, or seem to them to underlie, what they consider unbearable practices in education. Among the theories under heaviest attack are the following:

1. All the children of all the people should be educated.
2. Education should treat all aspects of development—intellectual, emotional, social, and physical.
3. Children should share at the level of their maturity in planning their learning activities.
4. Placement for most effective learning should replace promotion practice.
5. Encouragement and positive motivation should be used as much as possible to promote learning, in place of force and punitive procedures.
6. Education should assist young people to cope with the problems they will meet in all areas of life—problems of home life, health, leisure, vocation, and citizenship—rather than merely supply subject-matter knowledge.
7. Parents need to be given more information about the school progress of their children than is supplied by traditional marks, and the achievement of the students should be evaluated on the basis of their potentialities as opposed to the conventional appraisal in terms of subject-matter learning.

LACK OF UNDERSTANDABLE TERMINOLOGY. Instructors in education are frequently accused of inventing and employing a specialized terminology which is not familiar to laymen and which is unnecessary for the expression of ideas. Indeed, some critics insist that what they call "pedaguese" is used to impress and confuse laymen and to give special

status to educationists, rather than to facilitate the expression and exchange of ideas about education.

The criticism is valid that terminology in education has not as yet been completely standardized, as have been special vocabularies in law, medicine, journalism, pharmacy, and other professions. It is true that the same word or phrase is used with different meanings. For example, "general education" has different meanings to different people, as do "life adjustment," "core curriculum," and other terms. Without question, professional education would be more articulate and more effective, and the regard with which it is held by laymen and by teachers would be higher, if the professional terminology were held to the minimum and standard agreed-upon meanings were associated with the technical terminology.

INFERIORITY OF TEACHING IN EDUCATION COURSES. Rather frequently heard on college campuses is the statement that, while professors and instructors of education are supposed to know much more about effective methods of teaching than other college professors, most of them are not superior teachers; that many are, in fact, rather inferior teachers. This criticism often includes the charge that standards are not high and that instructors in education are "easy markers."

In many instances, this criticism by students and instructors may grow out of the fact that prospective high-school teachers are compelled to take professional courses in order to obtain teaching certificates, and some students would prefer to take more courses in their major fields of special interest. Probably students' criticisms not only are encouraged by some instructors in other subjects but are repeated and perhaps exaggerated by them.

Among those who feel that courses in education are not as well taught as are courses in other fields are students accustomed to using a single textbook which provides very definitive answers, or a textbook with the minimum of outside readings, as is the case in such courses as foreign languages, mathematics, science, and English. Students are

sometimes bewildered when professional courses require them to read several references and organize the materials read, think for themselves, and weigh arguments on both sides of a question. They prefer that the answers to questions be stated as facts, to be memorized and given back to the instructor.

LOW ACADEMIC ABILITY OF EDUCATION MAJORS. The students majoring in education frequently are said to be inferior, on the average, to college students in general. Sometimes these charges are substantiated by objective, factual evidence. In some institutions the students majoring in education have been shown to be, on the average, inferior to students majoring in most of the academic fields. Furthermore, graduates of teachers colleges frequently do not make as good a showing on graduate examinations in academic subjects as do students who have majored in academic fields.

The comparative records of students in the two groups raise the question of the extent to which high scores in tests of academic achievement are indicative of probable success in teaching. Indeed, there is some evidence that, beyond the average intelligence needed for graduation from a good college or university, the correlation between intellectual ability and teaching success is negligible. This lack of correlation has been particularly apparent in the case of teachers in the elementary schools, where personal qualities and an understanding of young children are crucial in determining teaching success.

TYPES OF CRITICS OF TEACHER EDUCATION

Today's critics of teacher education include several distinct types, among which are the following:

1. *Teacher-educators.* Since the beginning of formal teacher education in the United States, many men and women have been vigorous in their criticisms of teacher education and have offered constructive suggestions for its improvement. Their criticisms have encompassed the en-

ture area of teacher education and have often lacked unanimity. They have been, in the main, sincere and objective.

2. *Lay individuals and organizations.* Along with responsible and clear-thinking people, particularly the parent-teachers' associations, citizens' committees, etc., this group has included all sorts of vested interests, biased critics, and irresponsible publicity-seekers.

3. *Members of the teaching profession, including administrators and teachers.* Included here are both individuals and representatives of professional organizations, such as branches of the national education associations and of state organizations, the National Council of Teachers of English, and the American Federation of Teachers.

4. *Intellectual and social aristocrats.* These persons have little or no sympathy for teacher education aimed at comprehensive schools attempting to educate all the children of all the people. Instead, these critics are concerned with the intellectual, usually classical, education of children who are superior in verbal intelligence and who come largely from the families of upper economic and social strata. Among these critics will be found many who profess to admire systems of education in other countries, almost all of which operate on the assumption that only a select minority may proceed beyond elementary education.

5. *Sensationalists and opportunists.* Here we find some persons who criticize to attract attention to themselves as reformers or battlers for "standards." Also included in this group are those motivated, at least in part, by the income to be received from writing sensational articles and books. When one book has paid off well, a second book almost invariably appears very soon.

6. *Power seekers.* By resorting to demagogic methods, the objective of these educational politicians is to discredit professors of education and school administrators.

7. *Promoters of vested interests.* Some of these attackers are sincere but unconsciously biased in favor of a greater place in the sun for their particular subject matter—for example, some specialists in mathematics, foreign language,

and science. Also found in this group are some psychologists who resent professors of education and their courses which seem to compete with, and underrate the value of, courses in psychology. In this group also are some proponents of religious schools, who insist that teacher education does little to prepare teachers in the area of their special interest. Proponents of other nonpublic schools, particularly college-preparatory schools, are also members of this group. They attack teacher education because, they say, it is based upon a philosophy which neglects the bright child and college preparation.

CHARACTER OF CRITICISMS OF TEACHER EDUCATION

Many of those making one or more of the criticisms described above are conscientious and sincere, even though they may be poorly informed. On the other hand, some of the criticisms as they have been publicized are obviously hypothetical, intended to arouse attention rather than to identify objectively basic, and widespread, weaknesses of schools and teacher education. The more sensational types of criticism tend to have the following characteristics.

1. *Wise-cracking.* Albert Lynd, in his chapter on "The New Curriculum and How We Got It," sets up a strawman in the new curriculum, whales it vigorously, and ascribes the development and spread of this nonexistent hypothetical curriculum to "educationists."

2. *Use of epithet.* Examples are referring to social-science courses as "hash"; calling Professor William Heard Kilpatrick "Grandmagister of the cult"; referring to modern education ideas as the "new ignorance"; describing professional articles as "trade jargon"; labeling discussion by professors and practitioners of new education as "head rubbing"; and frequent use of such phrases as "romantic rhubarb," "third-rate minds," "piping about joy and growth," "box-office courses," "bleeding of simple souls," "sonorities," "education by incantation," "fiddle-faddle," and other sarcastic phrases.

3. *Use of far-fetched and rare examples.* Woodring, in his "Let's Talk Sense About Our Schools," cites the example of a curriculum in fly-casting in a hypothetical school. Woodring also expresses the fear that "Mortimer," a hypothetical boy with an I.Q. in the 60's, might graduate from high school and be accepted in a state university whose only requirement for entrance is high-school graduation—a possibility beyond the imagination of educators who know that children with I.Q.'s of no more than 70 rarely get beyond the ninth grade.

4. *Unreasonable definition of terms.* The terms used in the attack are frequently defined in ways not at all common or generally acceptable to many educationists, if indeed acceptable to any of them. For example, various types of strawmen are set up through use of the phrase "education for life adjustment," which is used to mean "vocational education," "social adjustment," and/or easy elective courses.

It is significant to note that, with few exceptions, the criticisms which are substantially supportable have been previously made, in much more scholarly and objective fashion, in the publications and proceedings of such organizations as the National Society of College Teachers of Education, the National Commission on Teacher Education, the National Society for the Study of Education, and other responsible groups. Publications by individual school administrators and by professors and administrative officers of departments, schools, and colleges of education have frequently called attention to education's shortcomings. Particularly frequent have been the calls for better guidance and education of the bright child, better subject-matter education of teachers, improvement in the character of courses in education, and a need for improving and increasing the utilization of research. Thus, the charges of some of the profession's critics seem to be of the nature of Johnny-come-lately opportunism.

Just how effective these critics have been in undermining the faith of the public and of teachers in courses in

education is difficult to determine as yet. Like the criticisms of the schools in general and like the now-discredited charges of Senator McCarthy, these criticisms first excite laymen and some teachers and then are discarded as unreliable or as being applicable to a small minority of teachers and schools.

Careful consideration must be given to the criticisms of teacher education in an effort to ascertain (1) the weaknesses that should be corrected and (2) the public-relations efforts that should be made when the criticisms exist only in the minds of the public and have no legitimate basis. Most teachers do not accept these criticisms at face value, for they immediately recall the courses in education which they pursued as graduates or undergraduates, and they recognize quickly that the criticisms are largely invalid. Others, who reject modern educational theories and practices, regard the critic as a "second Daniel come to judgment."

MAJOR FUNDAMENTAL ISSUES IN TEACHER EDUCATION

Some of the many suggestions looking toward the improvement of teacher education have been put into practice in some form in at least a few places. Other proposals have been put into practice in a very large number of institutions of higher education. Some of the suggestions have had real substance, and many of these, both in theoretical discussion and in real practice, have raised questions that have become important issues in thinking about teacher education. In the pages immediately following, a number of these issues will be stated and briefly discussed.

WHAT IS THE PLACE AND NATURE OF GENERAL EDUCATION? General education is considered an important part of the preparation and improvement of teachers. In most discussions today, it occupies a place quite comparable to that of education in subject-matter and professional education. There are several aspects to this issue.

Should general education come early in the college course as a background for professional education and subject-matter education? That is, should general education be ac-

quired principally in the first two years of college work, or should it be taken with the professional courses or after part of the work in professional courses has been completed? To avoid congestion in the last two years of college work, it would seem that general education should be largely completed in the earlier years. On the other hand, the general-education course may be much more effective if taken when the students are more mature.

No close general agreement has been reached on what areas of study should be included in general education. Quite commonly it is thought that general education should include some training in the natural sciences (physics, chemistry, biology, geology, and astronomy) and in the various fields of social science (history, economics, political science, sociology, anthropology), English language, literature, and philosophy.

HOW MUCH SUBJECT-MATTER EDUCATION SHOULD BE INSISTED UPON AS MINIMUM PREPARATION FOR TEACHING? This question is frequently raised, and specific answers have not been agreed upon. Most subject-matter specialists themselves are inclined to insist upon great depth of background in the particular subject fields. They usually demand thirty or more semester hours of college or university course work in every subject which the candidate expects to teach, and some insist on a full major. Obviously, if these standards were adopted, the student in a four-year program could prepare to teach only a small number of subjects, even though the subjects might be related, for example, physics, chemistry, and biological science.

Educationists and administrators are inclined to hold the deep-seated belief that teachers should be prepared somewhat less intensively in one area and more broadly than they usually have been. For example, it is believed that a teacher in the social sciences should have some training in American history, European history, history of other sections of the world, sociology, economics, political science, geography, and anthropology, and that a similar concentration should be made in the fields of the natural sciences and the various

fields of English. Indeed, many believe not only that preparation should be made in one broad field but that some degree of preparation should be made in a second field.³

WHAT PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION SHOULD BE INSISTED UPON AS MINIMUM UNDERGRADUATE PREPARATION? This issue has many facets. In recent years we have frequently heard the suggestion that most professional education preparation should be given after the awarding of the baccalaureate degree, although the work for that degree might include a few courses in professional education, such as educational psychology and introduction to education. This idea is characteristic of the thinking of those who consider a fifth year a necessity in the preparation of a teacher. In the opinion of some of the subject-matter specialists, however, only a few courses in professional education are needed in teacher preparation, such as educational psychology, methods of teaching, and student teaching. This thinking is based upon the concept that the work of the teacher is exclusively, or almost exclusively, to give instruction in school subjects. These subject specialists also consider that, if teacher activities must include guidance and work with students in extracurricular activities, little or no preparation is necessary for those duties.

Many administrators, teachers, and educationists will not concede that 18 to 20 semester hours of courses in education are sufficient for even a minimum preparation of teachers for either elementary or high schools. They believe that, in addition to educational psychology, methods of teaching, and student teaching, all teachers should have some preparation in the history of education; philosophy of education; educational sociology; measurement and evaluation of pupil learning; organization, control, and support of the American school system; one or more courses in guidance; methods of working with clubs and other extracurricular activities; and perhaps two or three additional courses in educational

³ This issue is defined more specifically and discussed more completely in Chapter 9.

psychology and child growth: for example, mental hygiene, the development and measurement of personality, psychology of childhood and adolescence, and the teaching of handicapped and of bright children.⁴

WHAT PROVISION SHOULD BE MADE FOR OBSERVATION OF STUDENT LEARNING? The feeling has been growing that the study of child growth and development through textbook courses alone does not fitly meet the need and that definite provision should be made for prospective teachers to observe children in classroom learning situations. In an increasing number of institutions, provision has been made for such observation, either correlated with the theoretical course work or independent from it. Then the questions have arisen: Should observation precede formal course work or accompany it? Should observation immediately precede student teaching, or should it be done all through the time the student is taking professional course work?

WHAT PROPORTION OF TIME SHOULD BE GIVEN TO STUDENT TEACHING? An educational concept has been gaining momentum that more time should be given to what is usually referred to as "practice teaching" or "student teaching." Until recently, persons preparing for high-school teaching usually observed and assisted in teaching one class for a quarter or a semester. This type of student teaching, sandwiched in between college courses and other campus activities, has been referred to by many as "hit-and-run" student teaching. Because of the growing feeling that teachers should be given on-the-job training in connection with counseling, co-curricular activities, course-of-study construction, and other activities in which teachers engage, more complete participation of prospective teachers in their duties is advocated as part of student teaching.

Perhaps emanating from the issue of the amount of time to be given to student teaching is the question of whether student teaching should not always be offered as an intern-

⁴ This issue, including the plans advocated and suitable practices, is discussed in Chapter 10.

ship. Along with the growing belief that a more varied and complete experience should be provided for prospective teachers, educational leaders believe also that prospective teachers will understand their work as teachers more completely and will develop a much better professional attitude and orientation by going into a school system as interns, devoting full time to student teaching and related activities for at least two or three months. The use of this internship has spread slowly but definitely over a period of years until now it is rather common.

Frequently the internship is begun in a nearby city, rather than on the campus, or in the city in which the institution of higher education is located. Naturally, the internship creates a problem of adequate supervision. The prospective teachers are accepted as full-time junior members of the staff and participate in all types of activities, including committee work, teachers' meetings, and public relations.

The greatest difficulty, especially in the case of prospective high-school teachers, is the amount of time that must be spent away from the campus and the consequent inability to carry courses other than the student teaching and the professional work closely related to it. In some places, as at the University of Colorado, in addition to full-time internship for eight weeks, internship is also provided on a half-time basis for a semester. Thus, the student is on the campus and can carry courses in the morning or the afternoon during the half-time period of student teaching. In the five-year program, of course, absence from the campus causes little serious difficulty.

SHOULD COURSES IN CHILD DEVELOPMENT REPLACE CONVENTIONAL COURSES IN EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY? In recent years there has developed, both in theory and practice, the policy of replacing conventional courses in introductory psychology and educational psychology with courses in child growth and development, which give special reference to the aspects of such growth and development that would be interrelated with children's school activities.

For many years the conventional training in psychology has included a course in general psychology—a course basic to all future courses in psychology—followed by a course in educational psychology whose primary emphasis was mastery of a textbook. In a few instances some laboratory work is included, but it is almost always of the kind that can be conducted in university or college classrooms.

It has been realized, however, that school learning of every type involves a special situation and that it also involves the growth of children over and beyond the activities connected with the learning of subjects. As a result a belief has developed that courses in psychology and educational psychology should be replaced by courses organized especially for the purpose of enabling teachers to understand the physical, intellectual, social, and emotional growth and development of young people. Further, it is thought that these courses should give special attention to situations which will be found commonly in the lives of children in the schools.

One facet of this issue is whether such a course should be preceded by a course in general psychology. Still another aspect is the question whether separate courses on the psychology and growth of the adolescent or secondary-school student should be offered.

Still a third aspect of the problem is the amount and the nature of observation and laboratory work that should be provided. This problem is complicated by the difficulty of finding, in the schools in the community in which the institution of higher education is located, places where observation and laboratory work can be undertaken. One of the criticisms of the conventional courses in general psychology and educational psychology is that most of them have been taught by instructors in psychology whose interests include, in addition to school learning, the psychology of infants and of adults, and other nonrelevant situations. Furthermore, the conventional courses in psychology are frequently taught by instructors who have had little or no experience in teach-

ing in elementary and secondary schools and whose orientation is not primarily concerned with the psychological growth and development of school children.

WHAT IS THE PLACE OF METHODS COURSES? Most institutions of teacher education have a course in general methods, such as "Teaching in the High School" or "Teaching in the Elementary School," together with courses in methods of teaching particular subjects: for example, "Teaching of Modern Languages" and "Teaching of Reading." There have been charges that the general-methods and the special-methods courses overlap each other and include an undesirable amount of duplication. Some institutions meet this problem by confining the general-methods course to general information that will apply in all subjects and by avoiding any thorough application of the information to particular subjects. They then offer special-methods courses growing out of, and imposed upon, the foundation and background supplied by the general-methods course. In some institutions the special-methods course is offered as a part of student teaching and is not available to individuals who do no student teaching in that subject.

At the elementary-school level the problem is even more challenging. A considerable number of teachers colleges and universities offer a special-methods course in each of the major fields taught in the elementary school—reading, language, arithmetic, social studies, science, physical education, music, and art. In other schools these specialized courses are not available, but more comprehensive courses are offered; for example, the teaching of mathematics and science, the teaching of reading and the language arts, and the teaching of the social studies can usually be found among the offerings. A few institutions offer no special-methods courses other than those in the teaching of music, art, and physical education.

Those who believe in the core curriculum, the self-contained classroom, and the highly correlated curriculum are opposed to, or at least not enthusiastic about, separate courses and special methods of teaching each subject. There

is also the opposition of those who point out that there is bound to be wasteful duplication in special-methods courses no matter how carefully the courses are divided. On the other hand, proponents of separate special-methods courses maintain that what duplication exists may be not unwise, since it tends to reinforce the understanding of the earlier topics.

SHOULD RESPONSIBILITY FOR THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS BE JOINTLY SHARED BY ALL WHO CONTRIBUTE TO THEIR EDUCATION? IF SO, UNDER WHAT TYPE OF ORGANIZATION? A great deal of the criticism of teacher education may be ascribed to the fact that subject-matter teachers, general-education teachers, and teachers of professional courses do not participate in cooperative responsibility for planning the preparation of teachers. Rather, they tend to work somewhat independently with a very small amount of mutual understanding of the purposes, practices, and problems of the other group.

Instructors of subject-matter fields, for example, have little opportunity to acquire vivid and functional ideas of the responsibilities that their student-teachers will face as teachers in the schools. It is natural also that they would not be conversant with the trends in theory and practice in the schools and the changes in the conditions which teachers must face in discharging their responsibilities. Conversely, teachers of professional courses in education are not brought face to face with the problem of just what contributions the various aspects of subject matter taught in college courses may make to course-of-study construction and to methods of teaching in the secondary school.

Great rivalry has existed in many institutions, particularly in colleges and universities, between the subject-matter and the professional-education divisions. Failure of the members of these departments to sit down together and discuss what should obviously be a joint and shared responsibility has led to misunderstanding and a lack of scholarly friendship.

A considerable number of colleges and universities have

set up some type of organization to provide for a joint and cooperative approach to problems of teacher education. Some institutions have organized what is called the "all-university council on education," which is not primarily an administrative device but a discussion and fact-finding organization composed of representatives of all departments having a direct part in the education of teachers.

In other institutions, one or more members of each of the subject-matter departments, usually those who are particularly interested in the education of teachers, sit in with the faculties of the department, school, or college of education. In still other institutions annual or *ad hoc* committees are appointed, which are composed of members of subject-matter faculties and members of the education faculty, to study and to offer solutions for various problems in the education of teachers.

Just what forms of organization are employed and to what extent the joint sharing of responsibility should go are two of the very important current issues in teacher education today.

WHAT SHOULD BE THE NATURE OF FIRST-YEAR GRADUATE STUDY? It is common for a teacher both in the elementary school and in the secondary school to select education as the major field of study for a master's degree. This choice has been deplored and criticized by a great many instructors in college and university subjects other than education, and it has not been generally approved by professors and instructors in education.

Although it is obvious to most professors of education and to school administrators that the typical undergraduate preparation of teachers, particularly secondary-school teachers, is inadequate, it is equally obvious that a great many teachers could profit much from additional study of the subjects which they wish to teach and from courses planned for the general liberal and cultural education of teachers.

An important obstacle to teachers' attempts to obtain needed training in certain aspects of their subjects is the

fact that a prerequisite to graduate work in most academic fields is considerable undergraduate work in the same fields. Advisors in departments, schools, and colleges of education at summer-school registration report rather generally that a great many teachers who would like to do graduate work in subject-matter fields feel that they will have to major in education even though they may have completed a great deal of undergraduate work in education. Many of them do not pursue graduate work in the subject fields because of the expense of attending summer school for the equivalent of one and a half to two academic years before they can obtain the master's degree on which their salary increases are based.

Graduate-school requirements for degrees do not favor carrying work both in the subject field and in education. Indeed in many institutions it is practically impossible, or at least impracticable, to do so, for there must be a major of considerable dimensions in one field and a minor in a related field. Furthermore, in many institutions some subject-matter departments do not encourage or even permit students majoring in education as candidates for a minor in their particular field.

Considerable study has been given this problem in recent years. It is a volatile issue, and in some institutions there has been a breakthrough which permits the graduate student to develop a program in education and in the subject-matter fields, including subjects in which the teacher is somewhat deficient. This has been particularly true in programs looking toward the improvement of the preparation of teachers in science and mathematics.

Many of these issues will be discussed in the chapters that follow. Certainly this is a period of transition and a time for the discussion of the problems of teacher education. Furthermore, practices in teacher education are definitely in transition and have been for some years past. Nevertheless, there is distinct necessity for more discussion and experimentation, particularly in the case of the issues mentioned in the foregoing pages.

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CHAPTER 3

Teacher Education in a New Age of Intelligence

The dynamic forces now affecting education generally bear also upon teacher education. Such influences are rooted primarily in the rapidly expanding scientific and technological development of the space age. They are generated by the impact of new knowledge and invention upon established educational, cultural, moral, and social patterns of community life. They emerge also from sociological and political developments that accompany the rise of the United States to a position of world leadership. They come from the shortage of able and qualified teachers in schools at all levels and accompany efforts to professionalize teaching. All in all, they reflect pressures from diverse directions to develop teachers capable of conserving and developing the intellectual resources of all young people to meet the complex problems of life in a new age.

EXPANSION OF KNOWLEDGE

Following the discovery of atomic fission, knowledge in many fields has developed so rapidly that school curriculums and teachers frequently cannot keep pace. World relationships have become so complex that the preparation for

citizenship responsibilities requires more extensive scholarship than formerly.

Paralleling the growth of knowledge in subject fields has been the less publicized increase in the body of established facts about the development of children and adolescent youths. Progress has been made, as well, in our understanding of the process of learning and of the theory and principles of teaching and curriculum organization. These developments emphasize the need to improve programs of teacher education and to strengthen the preparation of teachers already in service.

KNOWLEDGE REQUIRED FOR EFFECTIVE CITIZENSHIP. The teacher, regardless of his field of specialization, is expected to be an outstanding example of the broadly educated person and effective citizen. When Thomas Jefferson advanced the conviction that self-government is possible if people are educated to the task, little more than the ability to read and write was generally considered as a sufficient background for citizenship participation. In his "Bill for the More General Diffusion of Knowledge," proposed to the Virginia Legislature in 1779, Jefferson defined reading, writing, arithmetic, and history as the core of "that education given to all the people."¹ The practice of requiring tests of simple literacy to qualify for voting still prevails in a number of states. As political, economic, and social affairs have become more complex, as problems confronting a given community extend to national and international dimensions, the amount of education required for effective citizenship has increased significantly. Thus, requirements for the general education of all the people have been extended upward to include the secondary school while increased emphasis is being given to post-high-school and adult education. As the total population becomes better educated, the preparation essential for positions of leadership has become increasingly greater.

¹ Julian Boyd (ed.), "The Papers of Thomas Jefferson" (Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton Univ. Press, 1950), pp. 526-35.

Programs of teacher education have not kept pace with the quality and kinds of educational preparation necessary for leadership in communities today. Weaknesses in the education of teachers relate both to the amount of training and to the areas of vital knowledge which have been slighted. Forces directed toward the correction of deficiencies in the preparation of prospective teachers are influencing programs of teacher education. For example, two national organizations have devoted attention and financial resources to help strengthen the preparation of teachers in the field of economics. The National Committee for Family Finance Education,² supported by the Institute for Life Insurance, has sponsored summer courses in a number of institutions of higher learning to improve the preparation of experienced teachers in family finance. Although priorities have been given in the awarding of scholarships for such study to teachers of mathematics, social studies, business education, and home economics, it has become generally recognized that the content covered should be a part of the general education of all teachers. The Joint Council on Economic Education also has encouraged the development of special courses for teachers.³ Its efforts have been directed toward helping all teachers to improve their knowledge of basic economic theory and principles as they have occasion to apply them to local, state, national, and international economic problems.

The knowledge necessary for effective citizenship includes more than the deficit areas that have been found to exist in the teacher's general education. It extends as well to new global developments that touch all people. The citizen of today, as in the past, must understand thoroughly the tenets of democracy and the organization and operation

²The American Business Education Yearbook, *Education for Business Beyond High School* (New York: The Eastern Business Teachers Association and the National Business Teachers Association, 14, 1957), pp. 216-50.

³Joint Council on Economic Education, *Teachers Guide to the Use of Community Resources in Economic Education* (New York: The Council, 1955), p. 64.

of his own local, state, and national governments. In addition, he must possess a broad understanding of other governments of the world. Knowledge of world geography, economic and social conditions, human affairs and politics is needed by the individual if he is to help decide national policy intelligently. Furthermore, each citizen must be familiar with the organization and objectives of various organizations designed to promote world cooperation if he is to appraise the value of participation of the United States in international projects.

Citizenship today is not entirely a local enterprise. It involves participation in the making of judgments that have national and world-wide consequences. To share in self-government under such conditions requires a thorough knowledge of history, geography, language, science, economics, politics, sociology, human relationships and moral philosophy. Inasmuch as the teacher is expected to be a leader for good citizenship, his education should set a high example for others to follow.

This is one of the fundamental forces which compels an increase in the amount of liberal education required for all teachers. This is the main influence, for example, that has extended the length of college preparation for elementary school teachers. It has brought about a substantial expansion of the basic liberal education of all prospective teachers, particularly in the teachers colleges. The broadened educational requirements for citizenship emphasize the need to produce teachers who are well prepared for leadership in a nation which is dedicated to freedom, and to which the free world is looking for assistance and guidance.

EXPANSION OF KNOWLEDGE IN SUBJECT FIELDS. The key area of preparation of the teacher is the subject field or fields to be taught. For the elementary-school teacher, specialization is centered in the subjects common to the grade level at which teaching is anticipated. For high-school teachers, scholarship is developed in teaching fields. As knowledge has expanded, it has become necessary to re-

organize extensively the content of some subjects, and to prune and bring others up to date. In practically all fields, the amount of time required to develop scholarship sufficient for effective teaching is increasing.

Mathematics, physics, and chemistry are illustrations of subject areas which are rapidly undergoing reorganizations of content. The new mathematics of the space age is far different from the mathematics most teachers learned.⁴ As a consequence, efforts are now under way to retrain teachers and to reorganize curriculums in college mathematics to guarantee that future teachers will receive the proper subject preparation. Similarly, the fields of physics and chemistry have undergone sweeping changes of content since the advent of the fission revolution in science.

The National Science Foundation has supported summer and academic-year courses, and provided scholarships for teachers in order to bring experienced teachers up-to-date in their subject-matter knowledge.⁵ Extensive research has been done at the University of Illinois and at Yale University to reorganize the content of high-school mathematics.⁶ Several institutions are presently engaged in redesigning the major field preparation for prospective teachers in this subject. Massachusetts Institute of Technology is giving leadership to the revision of the content for physics courses from high school through the graduate program.⁷

Subjects such as history, English, and the arts must undergo constant screening to preserve the core of wisdom and past culture and place appropriate emphasis upon contemporary developments. Greater attention is now being

⁴ Robert E. K. Rourke, "Some Implications of Twentieth Century Mathematics for High Schools," *The Mathematics Teacher*, 51 (February, 1958), pp. 71-86, No. 2.

⁵ National Science Foundation, "Summer Institutes for Science and Mathematics Teachers," *The Mathematics Teacher*, 51 (February, 1958), p. 151.

⁶ University of Illinois Committee on School Mathematics, *High School Mathematics, First Course, Teachers ed.*, Units 1-4, 1957-58.

⁷ S. C. Brown, "Elementary Physics Laboratory Instruction at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology," *American Journal of Physics*, 25 (October, 1957), pp. 116-51.

advocated, for example, to study of the history and culture of the Asiatic and African nations. Stress is being placed on the importance of foreign language teachers achieving higher standards of competence. Similar emphasis is given to extending the subject preparation of teachers of other fields.

KNOWLEDGE OF HUMAN DEVELOPMENT. The pedagogical aspects of teacher education were originally centered almost entirely in the methodology and practice of teaching. When chairs of education were created in major universities at the turn of the century, an effort was made to introduce the prospective high-school teacher to the study of the history and philosophy of education and to scientifically established knowledge of learning. Only in recent years, have courses in human development been introduced into the sequence of education courses required for those preparing to teach in elementary and secondary schools.

The scientific study of the development of human beings, from childhood through adolescence, has gone forward at such centers as Yale University, The University of Michigan, The State University of Iowa, The University of Chicago, The University of Texas, and the University of Maryland during the past twenty-five years.⁸ From these researches have come documented knowledge and refined hypotheses regarding the mental, physical, emotional and social development of children at different stages of their maturation. At the same time, experiments concerned with the effectiveness of teaching have established the principle that individuals with broad and sound scholarship in the field of human development have a better chance of proving superior as teachers.⁹ Consequently, increased emphasis is being placed upon the study of human development in programs of preparation for teaching.

⁸ Leonard Carmichael (ed.), *Manual of Child Psychology* (New York and London, John Wiley & Sons Inc., Chapman and Hall, Ltd., 1934), p. 1296.

F. K. Merry and R. V. Merry, *The First Two Decades of Life* (New York: Harper & Bros., 1938).

⁹ Robert N. Bush, "A Study of Student Teacher Relationships," *Journal of Educational Research*, 31 (May, 1912) pp. 615-66.

KNOWLEDGE OF EDUCATIONAL PROCESSES. Despite grossly insufficient support for research concerned with the educational processes, there has grown over the past fifty years an accumulation of promising theory, serviceable generalizations, and established knowledge which are influencing programs of teacher education.

Human learning. The area of learning has long been recognized as a foundation field of scholarship for the prospective teacher. Early studies in this subject were limited by their dependence upon animal experiments as the basis for hypotheses about human learning. This weakness still prevails today, but it is less retarding because of the recognition that animal and human learning deserve to be studied separately and often with different objectives in mind. The difficulties inherent in the study of human learning, the limited support for longitudinal studies, and inadequate conceptions of designs for research, have made progress slow. Nevertheless, fragments of established knowledge about learning and conflicting theories of human learning, even though advanced without adequate documentation, have exerted significant impact upon programs of teacher education.

Teaching. Agreement prevails that teaching is the heart of the educational process. For this reason, most of educational theory and research has been related directly or indirectly to the process of instruction. Expansion of universal education has led to experimental efforts to improve the teaching of students through various class sizes. Emphasis upon behavior changes in students, compatible with the requirements of citizenship responsibility in a democratic society, has led to efforts to develop teaching procedures which will encourage such traits as independent thinking, self-discipline, creativity, self-direction, individual initiative, and cooperation.¹⁰ Increased interest in science and the scientific method has produced laboratory methods of teaching, and concern for involving students actively in the

¹⁰Julley J. Stiles and Mattie F. Dorsey, *Democratic Teaching in Secondary Schools* (Philadelphia: Happincott, 1950), p. 579.

self-direction of their learning activities has raised questions about the recitation and lecture as exclusive methods of instruction in elementary and secondary schools.

The fields of radio, motion pictures, and, more recently, television have had a mushrooming impact upon instructional practices. Some have claimed that educational television will make it possible for a few great teachers to carry on the major part of classroom teaching, while less experienced and perhaps not so competent teachers preside over the supervised study related to the televised lessons.¹¹

The growth in knowledge of the teaching process is producing a wide range of influences upon teacher education. Not only is the content of methods courses undergoing revision to keep abreast of new concepts of teaching, but college professors are feeling compelled to adopt the newer methods of teaching to their own instruction of prospective teachers.

Curriculum development. The greatest change that has come about in the field of curriculum development is the shift of responsibility from the administrator to the classroom teacher. Formerly, teachers were required to teach the content of courses as prescribed by the school board or the state department of public instruction. Today, teachers are expected to share the task of designing the curriculum and developing courses for a particular school system. This change has placed greater emphasis upon the need to prepare the prospective teacher for curriculum planning responsibilities.

The teacher of today is expected to know how to evaluate textbooks, to develop resource and teaching units, to select appropriate instructional materials, to choose and adapt content suitable to the age level and range of abilities, and to design evaluative instruments to measure the effectiveness of the course in terms of the objectives of the school. In addition, the teacher shares with colleagues the planning

¹¹ Charles Seipman, *Television and Our School Crisis* (New York: Dodd, Mead & Co., Inc., 1958), p. 157.

of the total offering of the school and helps to appraise the impact of the entire educational program upon the students and community.

These expanded responsibilities of the teacher for curriculum planning and course development heavily influence the programs of teacher education in both the pedagogical phases and in the subject fields of the prospective teacher. They challenge the college subject specialists to be of greater service in helping prospective teachers select the content appropriate to students at a given level of the school system from the wide range of knowledge that comprises the subject field. Such responsibilities may confuse many who visualize the work of elementary- and high-school teachers as it was a generation ago. Some will find it difficult to understand why prospective teachers today need to learn so much about educational objectives and organization just to "teach school." The prospective teacher also may be frustrated because he either recognizes the inadequacy of his preparation for curriculum development or, along with some of his professors, fails to understand why such an emphasis is included in his program of preparation.

CONFLICTING AND EXPANDING ROLES OF TEACHERS

Yesterday's teacher had a relatively simple and well-understood role to play. He was expected to transmit knowledge and culture and develop the skills of learning while maintaining strict and uncompromising discipline. His status within the society was second class—that of a trusted and respected servant. Teaching was not looked upon as a career field, for either men or women. Those who were ambitious and capable were expected to find outlets for their abilities in other fields of endeavor.

As responsibilities assigned to schools have increased, and with the growth in complexity of educational institutions, the roles assigned to teachers have become more varied, exacting, and often contradictory. Scholars have studied the multiplicity of roles expected of teachers by parents, various segments of the population, different communities, regions

and states, as well as by the teacher himself and his professional associates.¹² They have found, for example, that considered only in terms of the traditional role of director of learning, the teacher is expected to serve as judge of achievement, a person who *knows*, keeps discipline, gives advice, and receives confidences, a creator of the moral atmosphere, and member of an institution. The age-old "mediator-of-culture" role of the teacher expects him to be a member of the middle class, model for the young, idealist, pioneer in the world of ideas, person of culture, participant in community affairs, stranger in the community, and person "en route" as well as public servant.

Obviously, the complexity of different roles the teacher is expected to assume in schools and communities today exerts an influence upon programs of teacher education. How should teachers be prepared for the community expectations they will confront? Which roles should be given major stress by the teacher? If some roles are neglected, will failure result in given communities? Who should assume responsibility for helping the prospective teacher to develop role-awareness—the sociologist, the educationist, the psychologist? How can the prospective teacher predict his own adjustment to the multiple and conflicting roles that he will confront on the job?

IMPACT OF TECHNOLOGICAL DEVELOPMENTS

The forces growing out of what many are now calling the second industrial revolution affect the education of teachers directly. Clearly, this is an age of intelligence. Survival of national ideals and the preservation of individual freedom, as well as continued progress in all fields, depend upon the identification and development of the mental capacities of all the people. To accomplish this crucial objective, the nation looks to its schools and teachers.

¹² Jean D. Grambs, "The Roles of the Teacher," *The Teacher's Role in American Society*, Lindley J. Stiles, ed., (New York: Harper & Bros., 1957), pp. 73-102.

A SCIENTIFIC AGE. A scientific age places the teacher under the obligation to be in tune with the times—as both an educated person and leader in his community. Regardless of his field, the teacher should have a thorough orientation to the world of science and the forces that it can direct toward people, for either good or evil. The teacher needs to appreciate the power of science, its potentialities for service to mankind, the means by which science achieves goals important to man and the necessity to interpret science to citizens in all walks of life. Above all else, every teacher should be prepared to help people accord to science its appropriate place in the scheme of civilization and human progress.

The preparation of the elementary-school teacher is influenced by the emerging emphasis coming to be placed in the elementary-school curriculum upon the study of science. This requires that the elementary-school teacher be given stronger preparation in the sciences and mathematics than has been the practice in recent years. It prescribes, also, that scientific departments in institutions which prepare teachers give attention to helping organize the emphasis upon science for general educational purposes in elementary and secondary schools as well as for the specialized training of future scientists.

Out of the scientific age come the methods of science which will influence both the study and application of the process of teaching at all levels. It may be expected that the scientific study of learning, individual capacity, teaching, and school organization will help determine the content of programs of teacher education, particularly at the graduate level.

INCREASED SPECIALIZATION. The advance of science is demanding changes in scientific content and more intensive scholarship by teachers. Increased emphasis upon mathematics as a background subject for the study of physics and chemistry may well force institutions to abandon the traditional practice of attempting to prepare generalists in the field of science who are expected to teach general science,

biology, chemistry, and physics in high school. The time may be here, for example, when efforts will be made to prepare teachers of mathematics and physics, or mathematics and chemistry and others, to teach the biological sciences.

The specialization needed to prepare science teachers is also desirable in other fields. It is possible that programs of preparation for high-school teachers will come to exclude the traditional second-minor-subject field in order to strengthen the subject specialization in the major and first-minor fields. In some cases, minor fields of specialization may be abandoned altogether. Such steps will not only enrich the teacher's scholarship in the field of teaching, but also tend to discourage the continuation of small, inadequate high schools that continue to weaken the educational efforts in many states.

NEED TO CONSERVE INTELLECTUAL RESOURCES. Pressures to conserve and develop intellectual resources to a maximum are already forcing changes in established programs of teacher education. The heavy emphasis upon diagnosis and remediation developed by many departments of education is being matched by research and training programs for gifted students. Some institutions, such as the University of Wisconsin, are rigorously recruiting gifted students to prepare to teach the gifted. Special college programs are being designed for them which offer a maximum of intellectual stimulation in the liberal arts and sciences, the subject fields and pedagogical courses.

Teachers face the need for a type of preparation which equips them to help identify intellectual gifts in youth and to plan curricular and course programs that provide special attention for the gifted. They face the necessity, also, of learning to help all students to achieve maximum intellectual development in an efficient and healthy manner. Such requirements for teachers obviously challenge those responsible for teacher education to reorganize programs of recruitment and admission to teaching, content of subject courses and the professional sequence, and the nature of laboratory experiences provided prospective teachers.

IMPACT OF MASS MEDIA OF COMMUNICATION. Mass media of communications have both enriched and complicated the life and work of the teacher.¹³ They have multiplied the flow and exchange of ideas and knowledge. The level of general information possessed by the teacher and other educated persons of a generation ago prevails in the marketplace today. It is the common acquaintance of any fairly alert junior-high-school pupil. For the teacher to fulfill the role of a knowledgeable person in an age when the press, radio, television, and cinema make the secrets of knowledge and culture the possession of all demands exceedingly arduous scholarship.

Not only has the teacher's role as a cultural and educational leader become more demanding as a direct result of the modern media of communication, but his professional task of teaching is also made more difficult. His life is complicated by the need to keep abreast of the current information about his subject field which is daily being channeled to pupils behind his back, so to speak. This task is particularly difficult if he cannot afford a radio or television set, subscriptions to popular and scholarly periodicals, or the price of the most recent motion picture. In addition, he confronts daily classes of pupils who have become attuned to the high-level professional and often high-pressure performances of nationally known radio, television, and cinema stars. To hold interest and to motivate learning and genuine scholarship in the face of such competition is not an easy task. While the teacher strives to persuade students to utilize the skills of scholarship to dig out as well as master knowledge, to creatively translate knowledge into useful wisdom, and seeks to appraise with discriminating objectivity the results students attain, his competition offers highly polished, and expensively produced, spoon-feeding services which require neither individual initiative, sustained effort, critical thinking, nor the rigors of evaluation.

¹³ W. A. Wittich and S. F. Schuller, *Audio-Visual Materials* (New York: Harper & Bros., 1957), pp. 451-56.

When the teacher attempts to make use of these same mass media of communication to enliven and enrich his own teaching, he may find that students have already had a superficial exposure to the subject treated and feel, therefore, that they need no further enlightenment. The resources available for use in the classrooms may be so inferior to the commercial product that motivation for learning suffers by comparison.

A further complication faced by the teacher since the advent of television is the trend toward presenting, either "live" or on film, master teachers to instruct widespread masses of pupils.¹⁴ Such practices offer expanded opportunities to the outstanding teacher who is selected to teach through television. A much higher level of teaching performance, however, is required of those who become the television teachers. As pupils become accustomed to better teaching by television they are likely to expect greater competence from their classroom instructors. Such a result is not to be regretted. Nevertheless, it does indicate another way in which the expansion of mass media of communication touches upon the professional work of the teacher and upon programs of teacher education.

Mass media of communication open new vistas to the teacher, but they bring additional problems that require attention. All bear upon the nature of programs of preparation for teaching provided by institutions of higher learning.

CHANGING EMPHASIS ON MORAL AND SPIRITUAL VALUES

One role the teacher has been expected traditionally to assume in most communities is that of the moral and spiritual example. The teacher has always been looked upon as a good person, who went to church, and in earlier days was often required by the terms of his employment to teach a Sunday School class. The teacher has been seen as one who lived in strict observance of the accepted mores of the

¹⁴ American Council on Education. *Teaching by Closed-Circuit Television* (Washington, D. C.: The Council, 1956).

community and the virtues commonly endorsed by the middle-class majority. For the teacher of a generation or so ago, in many sections of the country, this expectation was not difficult to fulfill, provided he accepted employment in a school district whose dominant religious, economic, political, and moral values were similar to those he had adopted.

Mobility of population and further development of heterogeneity with respect to religious, racial and cultural backgrounds have practically destroyed the commonly held codes of ethics and moral standards that once confronted the teacher. Conflicts between advocates of different ethical positions, and disagreements with respect to how moral and spiritual values should be maintained, frequently engulf the teacher in crosscurrents of opinion and prejudice with which reconciliation is impossible. The truth is, as authorities have pointed out,¹⁵ we live in a culture of pluralistic values. With the decline of authoritarianism in the realm of moral and spiritual values, greater dependence has been placed upon the democratic approach to seeking the highest possible level of operational compromise among people dedicated to divergent points of view. The result has been increased controversy regarding proper moral conduct and more widespread efforts by subgroups to gain the official acceptance of their particular moral patterns.

Conflicts between church and state, with their accompanying charges that the public school is ineffectual in matters of moral and spiritual development, only intensify the changing emphasis in community life that confronts the teacher today. Changes in family life, the movement of families from rural to urban areas, two world wars and the continuation of international diplomatic conflict add to the confusion.

All such forces bring pressure upon the teacher and, consequently, on programs of teacher education. They call attention to the urgent need to help prospective teachers

¹⁵ V. T. Thayer, *Public Education and Its Critics* (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1954), p. 170.

think through their own positions relative to moral and spiritual values. They point to the necessity of teachers learning to live with controversy and to develop techniques for providing democratic leadership to communities to help them deal effectively with existing fundamental differences.

THE TEACHER SHORTAGE

The shortage of able teachers at all levels of the school system is causing changes in programs of teacher education. Already it has prompted the development of experimental programs designed to recruit young people who otherwise might not consider entering the teaching profession. Fifth-year college programs for graduates of liberal arts colleges,¹⁶ programs of professional courses offered in summer sessions and in extension centers, and modified internships as the major basis of professional preparation for teaching¹⁷ are examples of the impact of the teacher shortage on teacher education. Experiments with teacher-aides to assist master teachers teach more pupils,¹⁸ the use of live television and tele-films to supplement the work of poorly trained teachers,¹⁹ and the provision of special retraining programs in subject fields are further examples of such influences.²⁰

The shortage results in two contrasting pressures on programs of teacher education. The one most generally felt is for a lowering of standards for admission and of preparation to increase the number of teachers. This force usually comes from communities and states which pay lower salaries and whose educational aspirations are low. Often educa-

¹⁶ D. R. Krathwohl and W. B. Spalding, "Evaluation of the Arkansas Experiment in Teacher Education," *Journal of Teacher Education*, 7 (Sept. 1956), pp. 233-35.

¹⁷ J. T. Shaplin, "Harvard Internship Program for the Preparation of Elementary and Secondary School Teachers," *Educational Record*, 37 (March, 1957), pp. 389-95.

¹⁸ Paul W. R...

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ay City Teacher Aide Experiment (Bay 1956), p. 18.

ts Manual Physics Film Evaluation

ew Sources of Classroom Teachers," -6.

tional administrators are forced to fill positions with anyone available and accept ill-prepared teachers. The lowering of standards of preparation is advocated also by certain special-interest groups who oppose the professional preparation of teachers.²¹ Some of these represent small liberal arts colleges which find programs of professional preparation for teaching expensive and difficult to provide. Others are groups of subject-matter professors in colleges and universities who believe that special professional preparation for teaching is unnecessary. Some seek to abolish the pedagogical courses in the teacher education program in hope that they can capture a few additional semester hours of required work for their own subject fields. Whatever the motive, the effort is usually directed toward abolishing special requirements for teacher preparation and certification on the grounds that the shortage of teachers necessitates opening the gates so that any college graduate can teach in elementary and secondary schools.

The opposite force is for improving standards of teacher preparation as a countermeasure to the teacher shortage. Advocates of this approach point out that low standards repel rather than attract good teachers. They emphasize that many qualified teachers are unwilling to work under the poor professional conditions and for the low salaries accorded teachers. They point to the fact that states with the highest standards for the preparation of teachers are least affected by the growing teacher shortage.

These divergent influences, both rooted in the teacher shortage, will affect programs of teacher education. Other factors that may undermine the quality of teacher education, which likewise are related to the teacher shortage, include the impending greater dependence upon graduate students to teach undergraduate courses in many institutions of higher learning; recruitment of the better high-school teachers to college faculties; increased availability of scholarships for

²¹ Arthur E. Bestor *et al.*, "What's Wrong With Our Schools," *American Forum of the Air*, 18: No. 34 (Washington, D. C.: Ransdell, Inc., 1955), p. 11.

teachers preparing to teach in certain fields; shortage of capable professors in colleges and universities to give leadership to programs of teacher education; and shortage of able administrators and supervisors in public schools to give leadership to in-service programs of teacher education.

CONFLICT OVER CONTROL OF TEACHER EDUCATION

The increased recognition of the importance of education to all aspects of life has aroused a widespread interest in the quality of teacher education. Concern for the caliber of teachers produced focuses ultimately upon the sources controlling policies and programs of teacher education. Professors of liberal arts and other fields in colleges and universities are beginning to recognize their long-ignored responsibility for helping plan policy for teacher education.

As they do take interest, professors of education are being charged with having usurped control of teacher education. Powerful groups of subject-matter specialists have advocated that control of programs of teacher education should be wrested from schools and departments of education and placed in the hands of liberal arts faculties. Some professors of education have fought back, bitterly claiming that their opponents want to abolish courses in pedagogy only to provide more credit hours for the other subjects. They argue that liberal arts professors have little understanding of the problems of elementary and secondary schools and, therefore, are poorly qualified to make policy for teacher education. Other more rational groups, including both professors of liberal arts and of education, appeal for a cooperative approach to the development of programs of teacher education.

However this conflict may flourish on given campuses, it is related to the character and quality of the program of teacher education. Unresolved, it promises to undermine quality in teacher education and to turn more college students away from teaching. How it is resolved will determine whether or not the total resources of the institution will be directed toward improving the quality of teacher education.

PROFESSIONALIZATION OF TEACHING

A cluster of forces that influences teacher education is supported by attempts by various groups to professionalize teaching. The impact of such efforts shows up in the requirements for certification, standards for accreditation of institutions preparing teachers, personnel policies maintained by school systems for teachers, and the professional standards supported by teachers' organizations. As is true in other professions, such forces are strong and compelling in their pressure on programs of professional preparation.

CERTIFICATION REQUIREMENTS. The requirements for certification maintained by a state or licensing body reflect pressures from segments of the teaching profession for upgrading professional standards. Recent controversy over certification requirements grows out of the conviction by some interested groups and individuals that the requirements for certification favor certain aspects of the teacher's preparation over other elements.²² It is claimed specifically by some that the license regulations are too specific, stress quantity rather than quality, and bar from employment many who would be capable teachers. Advocates of a strong profession of teaching defend certification requirements as the only means of guaranteeing that professional preparation will be required for those entering teaching. Without question, the forces supporting the professionalization of teaching will continue to stand against those who maintain that teaching really is not a profession and therefore requires no special preparation for its practice. This controversy will no doubt continue to exert pressure upon the certification requirements that prospective teachers are expected to meet.

ACCREDITATION OF INSTITUTIONS FOR TEACHER EDUCATION. An additional illustration of the impact of the movement to professionalize teaching is found in the recent steps taken

²² "Accreditation of Teacher Education," *California Teachers Association Journal*, 52 (February, 1956), p. 18.

to accredit institutions for teacher education.²³ These efforts have been bitterly opposed by those who deny that teaching is a profession. Nevertheless, the united support of teachers, school officials, school board members, state and national officials, and professors in colleges and universities whose central concern is teacher education, has been sufficient to establish a National Council for Accreditation for Teacher Education which is moving ahead to accredit, in cooperation with regional associations, institutions which prepare teachers. The objective of such accreditation is to guarantee that minimum standards are maintained in the institutional program of teacher education. Clearly, the force of accreditation will increasingly influence the quality and standards for teacher education in future years.

PERSONNEL POLICIES FOR TEACHERS. The personnel policies maintained by the school systems employing teachers influence teacher education. Personnel policies specify, for example, the amount and nature of preparation required for initial employment, the character of the probationary phase of the teacher's development, the continuing professional development expected of teachers in service, and the extent to which quality in teaching is recognized in the salaries paid.

School systems which reward excellent teaching, rather than length of tenure and amount of preparation, compel institutions of higher learning to provide high quality work that will contribute to improved teaching.

PROFESSIONAL STANDARDS OF TEACHERS' ORGANIZATIONS. State and national teachers' organizations maintain standards of preparation advocated as desirable for their membership. At least four states, Kansas, Maine, Maryland, and Michigan, actually require members to hold the bachelor's degree and to be professionally prepared to teach. Such standards directly influence programs of teacher education. As is true in medicine, law, and engineering, the impact of professional

²³ W. Earl Armstrong, "Accreditation of Teacher Education: Its Status in 1956," *American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Yearbook* (1956), pp. 75-81.

organizations upon institutional programs of preparation for the profession is persistent and effective. This continues to be true despite efforts of the officers in colleges and universities to establish the National Commission on Accrediting to reduce the pressures from professional accrediting agencies. In the long run, the most powerful force operating to influence programs of teacher education is the combined opinions of members of organized professional groups.

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Part II

ORGANIZATION AND ADMINIS- TRATION OF TEACHER EDUCATION

CHAPTER 4

Influence of National, Regional, and State Agencies

Official control of policy for teacher education rests with the individual states. Nevertheless, various national as well as regional bodies exert strong influences on the nature and quality of the preparation for teachers. Such groups include the United States Office of Education, The National Education Association, national and regional accrediting bodies, various professional associations, and certain other organizations. The impact of such agencies may be fairly direct and compelling, as is true in the matter of accreditation, or it may work more subtly through the power of public opinion or financial support. In any event, policies for teacher education are responsive to national as well as regional forces, in addition to established state and institutional controls.

NATIONAL BODIES WHICH INFLUENCE TEACHER EDUCATION

Collecting and reporting information, promoting research, sponsoring conferences, and formulating statements of advocated policy are the major methods by which national

basis of nation-wide concern for the quality and nature of teacher education which was subsequently to develop.

More recent activities of the United States Office of Education relate to the allocation of funds for cooperative research projects between the Office and institutions of higher learning and state departments of public instruction. In addition, the administration of the provisions of the National Defense Act, passed by Congress in 1958, involves the Office of Education in certain aspects of teacher education, such as the preparation of teachers in the sciences and languages, as well as the training of guidance counselors.

Another way in which the Office influences teacher education is through consultation with various other national agencies or organizations. It also advises the President and Congress of the United States regarding all educational matters.

Appropriations to land grant colleges and universities. Since 1862, the federal government has appropriated funds to help support land grant colleges and universities. The establishment of these institutions made possible the provision of teacher education in the fields of agriculture and home economics. Later, land grant institutions greatly facilitated the development of training for teachers of vocational education, business education, and industrial arts. Federal funds have not gone for the support of teacher education per se in these institutions. They have made possible, however, programs of training that were otherwise unavailable in institutions of higher learning at the time the land grant institutions were established.

National Science Foundation. The National Science Foundation was created by Public Law 507 in 1950 by the 81st Congress. Its basic purpose is to promote the progress of science, advance the national health, prosperity, and welfare, secure the national defense, and encourage other activities related to science.

The Foundation's influence on teacher education has come largely through subsidies to summer and academic-year

groups have sought to influence teacher education. Another approach is the allocation of funds earmarked to promote specific emphases in teacher education. This practice has been employed by the federal government, by certain philanthropic foundations, and by business as well as industrial organizations. The object of such efforts is to purchase the establishment of particular policies and practices for teacher education in selected institutions to serve as examples for other institutions to follow.

The strength of these factors is such that policies and programs for teacher education cannot be properly studied or appraised without giving attention to the nation-wide forces that today encroach upon both institutional programs and state standards for certification of teachers.

INFLUENCE OF THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT ON TEACHER EDUCATION. The federal government influences teacher education through the leadership activities of the United States Office of Education. These activities include the sponsoring of research and the distribution of grants to support specific types or aspects of teacher education.

Activities of the United States Office of Education. The United States Office of Education has no direct control over teacher education in the several states. Staff members in the Office cooperate with members of state departments of public instruction and institutions of higher learning, as well as with representatives of the profession to promote research, increase cooperation, and recommend standards for the preparation of school personnel in various fields. An example of the recommendation of standards is a report,¹ issued by the Office in 1956. An earlier study completed by the United States Office of Education in 1933² became a

¹ United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education, *Qualifications and Preparation of Teachers of Exceptional Children* (Washington, D. C.: United States Government Printing Office, 1956).

² United States Office of Education, *National Survey of the Education of Teachers*, Bulletin No. 10, 1933 (Washington, D. C.: United States Government Printing Office, 1933).

courses for teachers of science.³ The emphasis in these courses has been primarily upon the subject matter of science, which has been the primary concern of the Foundation.

ROLE OF NATION-WIDE ASSOCIATIONS OF INSTITUTIONS OR AGENCIES. A common way for institutions or agencies to achieve influence at the national level is to join together to support mutual interests. Several such associations of institutions which prepare teachers, and certain professional groups or agencies, have exerted strong influence on teacher education in recent years. Their impact is achieved through conducting research, by developing standards for institutional programs, by establishing procedures and criteria for accrediting member institutions, and through the exchange of information concerning problems and promising practices.

American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education. The central objective of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education is the improvement of the education of teachers. This organization, which was established in 1918, is composed of colleges and universities that voluntarily work together to:

1. Call the attention of the public and the teaching profession to the opportunities and problems existent in the education of teachers
2. Enable member institutions to draw upon the resources of other colleges and universities to improve their programs of teacher education
3. Promote research and studies which will advance teacher education

A foremost contribution of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education has been the joining together of public and private teachers colleges, liberal arts and land grant colleges, as well as universities into one organization to study problems of teacher education. Its 487

³ Virginia Boteler, *Publication Resulting from National Science Foundation Research Grants* (Washington, D. C.: National Science Foundation, June 30, 1956), p. 38.

Association of American Colleges. Since 1915, the Association of American Colleges, which includes 830 institutions of higher learning, has maintained a standing commission on teacher education. This commission has reported regularly on problems of teacher education through its official organ, *The Association of American Colleges Bulletin*. One of its major studies was concerned with the education of secondary school teachers in liberal arts colleges.⁵

Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education. Nineteen national and regional associations concerned with the improvement of teacher education participate in the Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education. Formed in 1942 as an agency to carry on the work of the Commission on Teacher Education, the Council functions to promote mutual understanding, a sense of common purpose, and individual and concerted action relative to both pre-service and in-service programs of teacher education. It has sponsored clinics and national meetings of representatives of the participating organizations. Its principal contribution has been in keeping member-groups informed through a *Newsletter* about developments related to teacher education.

National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education. The National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education is the official agency recognized by the National Commission on Accrediting for accrediting institutions for teacher education purposes. (See Chapter 18 for a detailed description.)

Accreditation is voluntary for individual institutions. At the same time, the pressure for a college or university to be accredited increases in direct ratio to the respect accorded the standards maintained for accredited institutions. For this reason, the National Council, although new in its organization and function, promises to exert widespread in-

⁵ V. C. Morris, "Education of Secondary School Teachers in the Liberal Arts College," *Association of American Colleges Bulletin*, 36: 511-28 December 1950.

education. In addition, the Council has continued its interest in teacher education through its standing committee and through the encouragement of other studies in this field.

The studies of the Commission on Teacher Education generated a nation-wide interest in improving the quality of teacher education, perhaps for the first time in the United States. They have been instrumental in stimulating efforts to reorganize programs of teacher education in colleges and universities and have called attention to major weaknesses in programs. Thus far, their impact upon teacher education has been to foster an increase in the liberal education courses required for prospective teachers, particularly in the teachers' colleges, and to encourage greater attention to the study of human development in the professional sequence of courses. Unquestionably, the studies have helped to breathe new life into programs of in-service education by the emphasis they have given to stimulating teachers to carry on the scientific study of the students they teach.

Land Grant Colleges and Universities and State Universities Association. In 1958, the Association of Land-Grant Colleges and State Universities joined with the State Universities Association to establish a committee on teacher education. This action was initiated as a result of the recognition by the executive committees of the two associations that the two bodies should concern themselves seriously with problems of teacher education.

This represents the first time that the Association of Land Grant Colleges and State Universities had formally recognized the importance of teacher education. The development had its genesis in the recommendations of a committee created by the Senate of the American Association of Land Grant Colleges and State Universities, in 1957, under the chairmanship of Dr. James F. Nickerson of Montana State University. On the recommendation of the Association, representatives of the State Universities Association were added and the expanded committee became the joint agent of both associations.

2. *National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards.* The key influence on policies and programs for teacher education in the NEA is the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards. Established only in 1946 at the Buffalo meeting of the National Educational Association, this agency is charged with developing a continuing program to improve standards for the profession in such areas as teacher recruitment, preparation, certification, and in-service training.⁷ The Commission seeks to advance standards both within the profession and in institutions which prepare teachers.

The Commission sponsors conferences and publishes detailed annual reports on teacher supply and demand. It also makes analyses of the preparations of elementary- and high-school teachers. Its official publication, *The Journal of Teacher Education*, published quarterly, has become the leading periodical for teacher education in the nation. A monthly newsletter carries information about developments in teacher education in various institutions and states.

Since the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards is an arm of the National Education Association, it must be recognized as the voice of the organized profession of elementary- and secondary-school teachers. Through the Commission, members of the teaching profession seek to exert influence on both pre-service and in-service education of teachers. Its existence, and the strength it has developed nationally in a little more than a decade, illustrates the determination of members of the profession to control the policies and programs for the preparation of its future membership.

Fifty-two commissions on Teacher Education and Professional Standards have been established in the various states. These groups are affiliated with the National Commission. They participate in national meetings, conduct studies of

⁷ National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, *The Professional Standards Movement in Teaching: Progress and Projection*, Parkland Conference Report, NEA, 1936.

fluence upon policies and programs for teacher education in the years ahead.

INFLUENCE OF THE ORGANIZED PROFESSION OF TEACHING. Various professional associations attempt to influence at the national level policies and programs for teacher education. These include the National Education Association and a number of its key departments and commissions. Organizations not affiliated with the NEA, such as the National Society of College Teachers of Education, The John Dewey Society, National Society for the Study of Education, the American Federation of Teachers, and various special-interest groups, fall into this category as well.

The influence of such groups may be sporadic and fragmentary or related only to certain aspects of teacher education. On the other hand, as is true with the larger associations, it may represent well-coordinated, continuing actions to strengthen or change, to defend or control, the total program of teacher education.

The National Education Association and member departments. The principal influence of the teaching profession on teacher education is exerted through the National Education Association and its various member departments. Although not as potent a force as professional associations in other fields, e.g., the law or medicine, the National Education Association is rapidly growing in strength and professional standing.

1. *The Association.* Composed of over 700,000 members, the National Education Association has influenced teacher education largely through the *NEA Journal* and through the resolutions of its delegate assembly regarding standards for the profession. The official position of the Association is: ⁶

Education is a major profession. Its members are obligateded to establish and enforce professional standards for admission to preparation, for programs of teacher education, for admission to practice, and for continuation in educational practice.

⁶ National Education Association, *Handbook*, 1957-58, pp. 61-62.

stitutions of higher learning in which courses in education are taught. At that time the Society recognized problems in the following general fields as appropriate to its concern:

1. Administration of departments of education
2. Teaching and organization of courses in education
3. Research in the general field of education
4. General education of teachers
5. Specialization in teaching fields

The code of ethics developed by the Society in 1955 promises to make a lasting contribution to raising the professional standards for professors of education.

National Society for the Study of Education. Through the publication of yearbooks and the presentation of papers at its annual meetings, the National Society for the Study of Education seeks to promote the investigation of important educational questions. Five of its yearbooks have been concerned directly with problems in the field of teacher education.¹⁰

Specialized professional organizations. Various other professional organizations give attention in one way or another to the problems of teacher education. Many are concerned only with the promotion of the special fields represented by their membership. Some, however, have shown interest in the total program of teacher education. In this category could be listed forty to fifty different national groups representing subject-matter specializations, namely, the National

¹⁰ John Dewey, Sarah C. Brooks, and F. M. McMurray, *The Relation of Theory to Practice in the Education of Teachers, Third Yearbook, Part I* (National Society for the Study of Education, 1904).

Elliott, Dexter, and Holmes, *The Education and Training of Secondary Teachers, Fourth Yearbook, Part I* (National Society for the Study of Education, 1905).

W. S. Gray, L. V. Koos, H. L. Miller, and Clifford Woody, *The Professional Preparation of High-School Teachers, Eighteenth Yearbook, Part I* (National Society for the Study of Education, 1919).

Ralph W. Tyler, Chairman of Board, *Graduate Study in Education, 50th Yearbook, Part I* (National Society for the Study of Education, 1951).

N. B. Henry, ed., *In Service Education for Teachers, Supervisors and Administrators, 56th Yearbook, Part I* (National Society for the Study of Education, 1957).

teacher education at the state level, and seek in various ways to influence the policies for teacher education of both institutions of higher learning and state departments of public instruction.

3. *Association for Student Teaching.* One of the larger associations of college faculty members which has had substantial influence upon programs of teacher education is the Association for Student Teaching. This organization was originally established as the National Association of Supervisors of Student Teaching in 1920. Today its membership totals more than 2000⁸ supervisors of student teaching, laboratory school teachers, and professors of education in colleges and universities.

As its name indicates, the Association for Student Teaching has been chiefly concerned with studying ways to improve the program of student teaching as one aspect of the teacher education program. It has served to unite the efforts of professors of education and laboratory school teachers. Its major contributions to policy have been in the area of defining the conditions under which effective laboratory experiences for prospective teachers can be carried on.

National Society of College Teachers of Education. Founded in 1902, The National Society of College Teachers of Education is one of the oldest organizations dedicated to the study and improvement of teacher education programs. In its early days the Society restricted its membership to individuals offering education courses in colleges and universities.⁹

Its original purpose was to facilitate the study of problems involved in teaching courses in education. In 1948 the Society opened its membership to anyone carrying on teaching or administration in universities, colleges, and other in-

⁸ Association for Student Teaching, *Improving Instruction in Professional Education*, 37th Yearbook (Dubuque, Iowa: W. C. Brown, Inc. 1958), pp. 128-80.

⁹ National Society of College Teachers of Education, *A History of the National Society of College Teachers of Education, 1902-1950* (Ann Arbor, Michigan: The Society, 1950).

sociation on any matter. Each is free to advance its own interests in teacher education in any manner it chooses.

PHILANTHROPIC FOUNDATIONS. Whatever affects people, their health, security, and well-being, invites the attention of philanthropic foundations. These agencies historically have supported the improvement of education. A central concern of certain foundations has been the quality and nature of the education provided teachers.

The Peabody Fund. The Peabody Fund supported the establishment of George Peabody College for Teachers in 1875. This institution has pioneered the improvement of teacher education in the South. A further indication of the interest of the Peabody Fund in the preparation of teachers was evidenced by grants made to thirteen universities of the southern states to establish departments of education as an aid to education in the South. Although the Peabody Education Fund officially ceased to exist on May 20, 1914,¹² its work enhanced the importance of the professional education of teachers throughout the Southern States.

The Commonwealth Fund. As one of its final projects the Commonwealth Fund financed a comprehensive study of teacher education.¹³ The study employed the job-analysis technique to determine the nature of the professional work of the teacher. It has historical significance because it was one of the first examples of a philanthropic organization devoting major attention to the problems of teacher education. It also represented an effort to study the teaching profession by the same techniques utilized to investigate other professions.

Kellogg Foundation. The deep and continuing interest of the W. K. Kellogg Foundation in human welfare caused it to recognize the significant role of the superintendent of schools in community improvement. As a result, the Foundation began in 1950 to support experimental efforts to re-

¹² J. W. Brouillette, *The Third Phase of the Peabody Education Fund* (Nashville, Tennessee: George Peabody College for Teachers, 1910), pp. 5-6.

¹³ W. W. Charters and Douglas Waples, *The Commonwealth Teacher-Training Study* (Chicago, Illinois: University of Chicago Press, 1929), p. 658.

Council of Teachers of English, honor societies, research agencies, teacher's unions, parochial bodies, and professional vested-interest groups.

Associated Organizations in Teacher Education. In 1958, the Associated Organizations in Teacher Education was launched to bring together the numerous professional organizations that are concerned directly with teacher education.¹¹ The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education is both a member of the Association and the agency which provides the operational structure to promote the cooperative undertaking of the group.

The objectives sought through the Association are to:

1. Facilitate the development of programs of action, the utilization of resources, and the extension of intellectual horizons through unified effort and synthesis of the best thought in the entire field of teacher education
2. Provide opportunities for professional teacher education organizations and their constituent members to work together in ways not feasible or possible under conditions wherein each organization operates separately
3. Mobilize the resources of teacher education organizations, enabling them to undertake the study of pertinent problems and the consideration of questions which, although peculiar to their sphere of teacher education, they cannot solve individually
4. Serve as an authoritative voice representing the discipline of, and practices in, teacher education
5. Develop and protect high professional standards of teacher education
6. Promote the support of research in teacher education

To be eligible to affiliate with the Association an organization must have *primary interest in teacher education* or maintain a division interested in teacher education. Organizations may be composed of either institutional or individual members or both. No member organization is bound by the position taken by the Advisory Council of the As-

¹¹ Am. Assn. of Colleges for Teacher Educ., *Bulletin*, Vol. 11, No. 1 (March 21, 1958), p. 3-4.

the William T. Grant Foundation.¹⁶ Although centered in one institution, this project has extended into a number of states and has had nation-wide impact upon the preparation of teachers at both the pre-service and in-service levels.

All-State Foundation. From 1953 through 1958, the All-State Foundation sponsored 166 summer courses in 40 different institutions of higher learning to advance the training of personnel to teach driver education and highway safety. This effort has been designed to influence the preparation of teachers and the inclusion of this type of instruction in curriculums of secondary schools.

Carnegie Foundation. The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching was founded in 1905. The establishment of endowments for pensions for college teachers was one of its early contributions that touched teacher training institutions. Among the education studies and projects undertaken by the foundation was its comprehensive study of the training of teachers. This investigation dealt comprehensively with the training institutions and 20,000 teachers in one state, New York.¹⁷

INTERESTS OF NONPROFESSIONAL GROUPS. The importance of the quality of teacher education to the business and industrial world and to the public in general is illustrated by the interest that numerous nonprofessional groups are showing. Included in any list of such organizations must be a number of school-related agencies which, because of their designated responsibilities, find themselves concerned with the education of teachers. Involved also are religious interests which may influence teacher education either directly or indirectly.

School-related agencies. Foremost of the nonprofessional agencies that participate in helping to strengthen the quality of teacher education are such bodies as the National Associa-

¹⁶ Daniel A. Prescott, *The Child in the Educative Process* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1957), preface.

¹⁷ The Commonwealth Study, officially reported in *The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching* (Concord, N. H.: The Rumford Press, 1919), pp. 10-11.

design both the pre-service and in-service education of educational administrators. From 1950 to 1959, the Foundation invested about six million dollars in projects sponsored by thirty institutions and agencies across the nation.¹⁴ These studies attempted to learn how to improve the preparation of school superintendents. They represent the most extensive attempts ever made to ascertain how to select prospective administrators, organize a program of pre-service preparation that would produce the caliber of leadership needed for schools, provide internship experiences for administrators, and keep practicing administrators abreast of new developments in education.

The Ford Foundation. Organized in 1936, the Ford Foundation receives and administers funds for scientific, educational, and charitable purposes, as well as for the public welfare. It makes grants to other organizations and awards fellowships to individuals. Of a number of independent, self-governing organizations the Foundation has established The Fund for the Advancement of Education, which has taken an active interest in the education of teachers since 1951.

Among the activities of The Fund for the Advancement of Education that have influenced or may influence policies and programs of teacher education are its scholarships to high-school teachers to provide them time and resources to improve their teaching; sponsorship of programs of teacher education built largely around cadetships in teaching; support for projects designed to show how instructional teams may more effectively utilize the contributions of outstanding teachers; sponsorship of research to test the use of educational television; and support for suggestions of new directions for teacher education.¹⁵

The Grant Foundation. Extensive research and experimentation by the Institute for Child Study at the University of Maryland has been supported over a nine-year period by

¹⁴ W. K. Kellogg Foundation, *Annual Report* (Battle Creek, Michigan: The Foundation, 1957), p. 125

¹⁵ Arkansas Experiment in Teacher Education

encourages Catholic colleges to support the National Commission on Accrediting and to cooperate with the Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards of the National Education Association. Although it raises certain key questions about national accrediting for teacher education, it sees no objection to any Catholic college applying to the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education for evaluation and approval.¹⁸

2. *The influence of the Protestant churches.* Policy for Protestant colleges depends more on the decisions of the faculties of individual institutions and of the particular denomination to which the institution is related.

Since early colonial days the Protestant church has been interested in teacher education and in the institutions that train teachers. It was a Presbyterian academy, Zion Par-nassus, that established one of the first teacher-training institutions in the United States when it set up a normal department in 1785. In the state of Pennsylvania, the Moravians and the Society of Friends promoted teacher training until the mid-1850's when state normal schools took a share of the responsibility for this field.

3. *The Jewish religion.* The Jewish religion influences teacher education through the support it gives generally to education and by the specific importance it accords to pedagogical training for the teaching of Hebrew studies.¹⁹ The vowel system of teaching language and reading on the elementary level, developed by Jewish educators, is coming to be reflected in the instructional methods of language arts teaching.

Business and industrial organizations. Certain business and industrial organizations have endeavored to support, or influence, programs of preparation for elementary and sec-

¹⁸ George F. Donovan *Developments in the Accreditation of Teacher Education in the United States* (Washington, D. C.: National Catholic Education Association, 1956), pp. 52-53.

¹⁹ Institute on Jewish Education, *Jewish Education in Response to the Challenge of Our Times* (New York: The Department of Education and Culture of the Jewish Agency, 1957), p. 94.

tion of School Boards, Inc., the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, and the National Citizens' Commission for Better Schools.

The National Association of School Boards, Inc., has participated with the National Education Association in sponsoring a joint-committee concerned with the subject, "A Quality Teacher in Every Classroom." It maintains membership in the Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education and is a charter member of the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education.

The National Congress of Parents and Teachers has been instrumental in holding before the lay public, in both its national meetings and its publications, the importance of producing quality teachers for elementary and secondary schools. This body has supported the legal certification for teachers and worked to increase the number of years of college study required for teaching.

The National Citizens' Commission for Better Schools has encouraged citizen groups throughout the country to take an active interest in all aspects of public education. Quality of teachers has been high on the list of considerations which have attracted the attention of citizen groups. Dedicated to objective, nonpartisan, and unemotional considerations of educational issues, these groups have helped to promote rational appraisals of programs for teacher education.

Religious groups. Teacher education is closely related to the educational efforts of various religious groups. Substantial numbers of teachers are prepared in church supported or controlled schools. A portion of teachers find jobs in parochial elementary and secondary schools.

Depending upon the church group with which it is affiliated, a college may maintain high standards, wholly comparable to those of the best public institutions, or it may tend to ignore generally recognized standards for higher education and the preparation of teachers.

1. *The Catholic influence.* Catholic colleges, as a rule, strive to meet accreditation standards of the regional accrediting bodies. The National Catholic Education Association

cil on Teacher Education, and a number of regional associations of professors in particular fields.

An annual conference on teacher education sponsored by the University of Minnesota has grown to exert regional influence. In some geographical areas of the country, deans of schools of education meet to discuss problems of teacher education and to identify developments that concern all.

REGIONAL ACCREDITING ASSOCIATIONS. The six regional associations for accrediting colleges and secondary schools have influenced teacher education basically in two ways: (1) by the standards maintained for accreditation of the entire institution in which teacher education is carried on; and (2) by the requirements imposed upon teachers permitted to teach in accredited high schools. In addition, the regional associations have encouraged research related to teacher education. Some have established subcommittees on teacher education and given consideration to problems of this field in special workshops as well as in their annual meetings.

With the establishment of the National Council on Accreditation of Teacher Education, regional associations all have entered into working agreements with this national body to help accredit institutions for teacher education purposes.

SOUTHERN COUNCIL ON TEACHER EDUCATION. The Southern Council on Teacher Education was organized in Memphis, Tennessee, in December, 1952. Its purposes according to the constitution approved in 1953 are to:

1. Bring together persons concerned with improving teacher education
2. Interpret and represent the best interest of teacher education before professional and lay groups throughout the South
3. Promote understanding and cooperation among all groups interested in teaching—those who prepare teachers, employ and use the services of teachers, and certify teachers
4. Stimulate the work of teacher education councils or similar organizations in each state
5. Stimulate research on problems of teacher education

ondary-school teaching. Activities of such groups range from sponsoring programs of teacher recruitment, providing scholarships for teachers, honoring teachers in-service, supporting research, and sponsoring special courses, to advocating legislation.

The Chamber of Commerce of the United States has encouraged its membership to raise the quality of science teaching. It has supported the expansion of the National Science Foundation to improve teacher training and has called attention to the contributions television can make to better instruction.²⁰ Its statement of Educational Policies, approved by the 45th annual meeting in 1957, emphasized the importance of "Well-trained, dedicated teachers and administrators, adequately compensated and afforded the dignity commensurate with their important contribution to society . . ."

The National Institute for Life Insurance has supported, since 1950, a program of training for teachers in the field of family finance. The courses sponsored have called attention to the importance of including an appropriate emphasis upon such content in the pre-service preparation of teachers.²¹ A similar program has been sponsored by the Joint Council on Economic Education.²² The National Association of Manufacturers, the American Federation of Labor, and the Congress of Industrial Organizations are examples of other national groups which have taken an interest in teacher education.

REGIONAL ASSOCIATIONS

Regional associations that influence policy and programs for teacher education include the six accrediting associations for colleges and secondary schools, the Southern Coun-

²⁰ Chamber of Commerce of the United States, *News and Cues*, Washington, D. C.: Vol. 12, No. 5 (December 1957); Vol. 12, No. 6 (January, 1958); Vol. 12, No. 7 (February 1958).

²¹ Committee on Family Finance Security Education, *Financial Security Topics for Teachers* (New York: Educational Division, Institute of Life Insurance, 1950), Vol. 1, No. 2.

²² S. F. Keiser, "Role of Economics in General Education," *Journal of General Education*, 9 (April 1956), pp. 179-87.

freely, without due regard to the quality and integrity of the institution, is likely to contribute to lowered standards for the education of teachers.

State controls, insofar as they affect teacher education, may relate to the programs an institution is permitted to offer, the source of support, and accreditation for teacher education purposes by the state department of public instruction. In states where public funds are paid for educational services, state departments typically have statutory authority to regulate the programs supported. Nonpublic teacher-training institutions that seek to prepare teachers for public schools are encouraged by statute in approximately half of the states to submit their programs to the state department of public instruction for approval.²⁴ In cases where approval is given, graduates of such institutions may be certified for teaching on the same bases as graduates from public institutions.

Legislative enactments. It is doubtful that any state has been spared, at one time or another, special legislative enactments aimed at controlling policy or programs of teacher education. A number of states require, for example, all prospective teachers to include in their college programs a course in American history. Louisiana, Oklahoma, Oregon, Texas, Washington, and Wyoming have statutory requirements specifying that knowledge of the history of the state must be demonstrated either by examination or by passing a college course in the subject. In Wisconsin, prospective teachers of science, social studies, and agriculture are required to study a course in conservation; and majors in social studies and agriculture must take a course in consumers' cooperatives or cooperative marketing.

Such requirements, imposed by statutory acts, affect both the general education and specialized preparation of teachers. They reflect responses to local traditions in many instances and often become obsolete in terms of their original objectives. In practically all cases they tend to introduce

²⁴ Fred F. Beach and Robert F. Will, *The State and Non-Public Schools* (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1938), p. 26

6. Strengthen programs of teacher education
7. Develop a program which will insure an adequate supply of professionally prepared personnel
8. Improve the quality of personnel and teaching at the college level²³

STATE'S RESPONSIBILITY FOR TEACHER EDUCATION

Education is a state function. It is to be expected, therefore, that policy and programs for teacher education will be affected most directly by actions at the state level. Forces that influence the nature and quality of programs of education for teaching flow primarily from laws passed by state legislatures and regulations adopted by state departments of public instruction. The control of the chartering function by the state for institutions which prepare teachers is another factor that affects the quality of programs of teacher education, inasmuch as it helps determine the kind and type of institutions permitted to function within a state. In addition, the budgetary support of public institutions which prepare teachers shapes to some extent policies and programs for teacher education.

STATE CONTROLS. Although the federal government has no legal responsibility for teacher education, state governments have. In fact, full responsibility for the nature and quality of teacher education programs and the kind of teachers licensed to teach rests finally with each state. How a given state discharges its responsibility for teacher education determines basically the caliber of teachers it will provide for its schools.

The chartering function. Perhaps the oldest responsibility of the state related to teacher education is that of chartering institutions of higher learning to prepare teachers. In most states the chartering function relates to both publicly and privately controlled institutions, to junior or two-year colleges, as well as to four-year colleges and universities. A state which charts institutions of higher learning

²³ Southern Council on Teacher Education, *Constitution*, Adopted December 2, 1953, Memphis, Tennessee

and the particular courses required by the state for certification. In most states, license requirements have been developed with the cooperation of members of the profession, representatives of the institutions for teacher education, and, often, representative laymen.

In general, requirements for certification have controlled the length of the program of preparation for teaching, the extent of liberal education work, the number of subject fields in which preparation for teaching is required, the minimum semester hours of work in teaching fields, and the amount of work in education courses included in college programs.

Supervision and control. In states in which the state board of education serves as the regents for teachers colleges, it exercises complete control over their programs of teacher education. In 1949, the regulatory function of the state department of education included the appointment of the head of teacher-training institutions in 12 states and the approval of the appointment in seven others; the prescription of curriculums for teacher-training institutions in 14 states and approval of curriculums in twenty; prescription of admission and graduation requirements for state teacher-training institutions in 13 states and approval of these requirements in 13 other states; and the determination of quotas for teacher education institutions in ten states.²⁵

All states provide a director or supervisor of certification and teacher education, indicating the intent to provide supervision and control of teacher education. Illustration of this intent is found in the description of duties of this office in Colorado, Kentucky, New Jersey, Rhode Island, and Wisconsin, where job specification for the state superintendent of public instruction states that the superintendent is the principal state agent for "direction of preparation of standard courses of study and certification of teachers."²⁶

²⁵ Fred W. Beach, *The Functions of State Departments of Education* (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Office of Education), 1958, p. 61.

²⁶ U. S. Office of Education, *Bulletin* 1950, No. 11-18, *Characteristic Features of State Educational Agencies and Their Powers as Provided by Law*, pp. 18, 59, 72, 76, 81, 90.

a degree of rigidity into programs of preparation and certification for teaching which resists changes in curriculums for teacher education and reciprocity between states for teacher certification.

Financial support for institutions of teacher education. Policy and programs of teacher education, like all other collegiate offerings, are determined largely by the budgetary support they receive. State-supported institutions must place dependence upon appropriations by the state legislature; privately supported colleges and universities must look to tuition fees, income from endowments, and contributions. In either case, teacher education has not been sufficiently popular to attract adequate support.

Lack of support has been a major impediment to adequate programs of teacher education in both public and private institutions. The level of support for publicly controlled teachers' colleges has been a national disgrace. In most cases, budgetary provisions for schools and departments of education in universities have been meager.

Many small, privately controlled, liberal arts colleges which prepare teachers are similarly impoverished. These institutions have often depended heavily upon prospective teachers to fill out their enrollments, but they have been unable, or unwilling, to provide adequate support to quality programs of professional preparation.

ROLE OF STATE DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION IN TEACHER EDUCATION. State departments of public instruction are assuming increasing responsibility for teacher education in many states. Historically, the state department has administered the process of teacher certification. To this function has been added in some instances responsibility for supervision and control of teacher education. Practically all state departments assume the role of leadership for the improvement of teacher education.

Licenser. As a licenser of teachers, the state department of public instruction has exerted strong and often compelling controls on policies and programs for teacher education. Institutions which prepare teachers have been required to provide the kind of programs, the distribution of courses,

employment directly influence teacher education. Such standards are often the product of many factors. They may be low because the school district pays poor salaries or provides undesirable professional working conditions for teachers. Rural one-room schools and small high schools which require teachers to teach several grades or subjects are unable to attract well-trained teachers in competition with larger schools. Such districts often bring pressures upon the state department of public instruction and the legislature to keep state minimum standards for the preparation and certification of teachers at a low level. The result is that many young people are encouraged to enter teaching with inadequate preparation.

On the other hand, school districts that set high standards of preparation and continuing professional development for teachers exert a counterforce on state authorities. Such systems, which employ only teachers with college degrees for either elementary or secondary schools, give priority to those with graduate degrees, and provide supervisory assistance to develop beginning teachers on the job, give support to higher standards in colleges and universities and for state certification.

IMPACT OF LOCAL PERSONNEL POLICIES ON TEACHER EDUCATION. The widespread practice by school boards of rewarding teachers for the amount of formal preparation in college or graduate school has contributed to increased college course preparation of teachers. Such a practice has had the effect of requiring teachers to return to college for additional formal study or to participate in programs of continuing professional development on the job. The weaknesses observed in such practices grow out of the extent to which teachers have failed to select courses that would most benefit their teaching.

SELECTED SUPPLEMENTARY READINGS

- ANDREWS, F. EMERSON. *Philanthropic Foundations*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1936.
- BRAMELD, THEODORE. *Ends and Means in Education: A Mid Century Appraisal*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1950.

Other states give the state department no actual control over programs of teacher education in institutions of higher learning. In such states, efforts to strengthen teacher education are made through encouragement rather than control.

Leadership for improvement. Even those state departments of education with no legal responsibility for teacher education are able to influence the quality of teacher education by programs of encouragement and leadership. Often, this type of assistance is given informally, in consultation with officials of institutions that prepare teachers. It may be provided school officials in their programs of in-service education. Other types of leadership include joint sponsorship with colleges and universities of experimental courses for teachers; holding of conferences to consider problems of coordination in teacher education; conducting research related to aspects of teacher education; publishing guides for improving teacher education programs; and the employment of joint staff members with colleges and universities to concentrate on specific problems of teacher education.

The role of state departments of public instruction regarding teacher education is changing rapidly. No longer is the state department expected to influence teacher education only through certification. It now is called upon, either officially by legislative authorization or informally by institutions of higher learning and by representatives of the profession, to provide assistance in designing programs to prepare teachers before they reach the certification stage.

LOCAL POLICY AND TEACHER EDUCATION

Local policies of school boards and attitudes of administrators and members of the profession influence teacher education at both pre-service and in-service levels. Personnel practices play an important part in determining the quality of initial preparation and continuing professional development of teachers.

SCHOOL BOARD REGULATIONS REGARDING TEACHER QUALIFICATIONS. The regulations adopted by school boards regarding the qualifications of teachers considered for

CHAPTER 5

Institutions for Teacher Education

The kind of instruction provided prospective teachers, standards of selection they must meet, breadth and intensity of preparation, the level of academic achievements required, as well as the cultural, social, and aesthetic environments they experience—all are related to the types of institutions in which teachers are prepared. Consequently students of teacher education and citizens who seek to improve the quality of education provided teachers need to know the extent to which the responsibility for teacher education is being assumed today by different types of institutions of higher learning. This chapter presents information about the types and control of institutions of higher learning which educate teachers, numerical trends with respect to type of institutions engaged in teacher education, relative proportions of qualified teachers being graduated from different types of institutions, accreditation of colleges and universities which prepare teachers, and the types of institutions offering advanced degree programs for teachers.

CLASSIFICATIONS OF INSTITUTIONS FOR TEACHER EDUCATION

In 1958, 1228 different institutions of higher learning were engaged in the preparation of teachers. These are classified in Table 1 according to their organization and

function, rather than by title, into four basic types: junior and two-year colleges, liberal arts colleges, teachers colleges, and universities and multipurpose institutions. The difficulty of classifying institutions according to their titles lies in the paradox between titles used and the structure and functions of many institutions. The classifications used here are those followed by the United States Office of Education. With the exception of the classification "junior and two-year colleges," which first appeared as a category of institutions engaged in teacher education in the reports of the Office of Education in 1950, all the other classifications have been employed with substantially the same meaning since 1870. Another category, the normal school, which played a prominent role in terms of numbers of institutions engaged in teacher education during the last half of the nineteenth and early part of the twentieth century, was discontinued after the 1950 reports because only five institutions were still called by this title and actually were four-year colleges.

TABLE I

CLASSIFICATION AND CONTROL OF INSTITUTIONS ENGAGED IN
TEACHER EDUCATION IN 1958 *

Classifications	Control		
	Public	Private	Total
Junior and two-year colleges	93	75	168
Teacher colleges	80	15	95
Liberal arts colleges	2	43	45
Multipurpose colleges and universities	249	671	920
Totals	424	804	1228

* Education Directors 1957-1958, Part 3, *Higher Education* (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education, 1958)

These 1228 institutions all offer professional preparation for teaching. The junior and two-year colleges provide pedagogical courses that qualify elementary teachers for certification in a number of states. The 168 two-year institutions which contributed to teacher education, 93 under

public control and 75 privately controlled, represent more than 13 per cent of all institutions for teacher education. This is the second largest group, since in 1958 only 45 liberal arts colleges and 95 teachers colleges were preparing teachers.

By far the predominant type of institution for teacher education today is the university or multipurpose institution, of which there were 920 in 1958—about 75 per cent of the total number of institutions. When only the four-year institutions for teacher education are considered, universities or the multipurpose type of colleges represent almost 86 per cent of the total 1060 colleges or universities for teacher education.

Clearly, in terms of numbers, neither the single-purpose liberal arts college, which was the original institution for the education of teachers, nor the teachers college, which followed the normal school in charting the course for the professional preparation of teachers in the United States, is playing a significant role in the preparation of teachers for elementary and secondary schools today. Together they constitute only 11 per cent of the total number of institutions. Nor is the publicly controlled college or university the predominant type of institution for teacher education. Seven hundred and twenty-nine, more than 68 per cent, of the four-year schools are privately controlled—as compared to 331 public colleges and universities.

INCREASE IN NUMBER OF INSTITUTIONS. The increase in number of institutions preparing teachers and the transitions that have taken place with respect to type of institution since 1870 are shown in Table 2. The normal school was at the peak of its numerical strength at the turn of the century, with 210 such institutions existing in 1890 and 258 still functioning in 1910. Twenty years later, 196 normal schools were still in operation. The number declined rapidly thereafter, as four-year teachers colleges developed; and the universities and multipurpose institutions, as well as liberal arts colleges, began to offer professional programs to prepare elementary- and secondary-school teachers.

TABLE 2

EXPANSION IN NUMBER AND CLASSIFICATIONS OF INSTITUTIONS
FOR TEACHER EDUCATION, 1870-1958 *

Classifications of institutions	Years					
	1870	1890	1910	1930	1950	1958
Normal schools:						
State normal	44	103	151	66	3	...
County normal	11	6	8	47
City normal	7	58	31	26
Private normal	7	43	68	57	2	...
Total	69	210	258	196	5	...
Junior or two-year colleges:						
Public					48	93
Private					49	75
Total					97	168
Teacher colleges:						
Public			10	131	109	80
Private			1	6	29	15
Total ..			11	140	138	95
Universities, liberal arts colleges and multipurpose colleges:						
Public	4	10	29	89	210	251
Private	5	15	81	414	555	714
Total	9	25	110	503	765	965
	78	234	379	839	1005	1228

* Reports of the Commissioner of Education, United States Office of Education, 1870, 1890, 1910, 1930; Education Directory, Office of Education, 1930; Education Directory, Chapter III, Office of Education, 1958.

Some teachers colleges had been established during the nineteenth century; they were classified as normal schools, however, until the early 1900's, when several were listed by the United States Office of Education. By 1910, eleven teachers colleges and 110 liberal arts colleges and universities were professionally engaged in teacher education. Twenty years later the number of teachers colleges had increased to 140, and 503 universities and liberal arts colleges were offering pedagogical courses.

The practice by junior and two-year colleges of offering professional work for teacher preparation developed between

1930 and 1950. It was encouraged no doubt by the shortage of teachers in elementary schools, the demise of the normal school, and the expansion of the junior college itself. Although there are relatively few privately controlled teachers colleges, fifteen as compared to eighty public institutions in 1958, the number of privately controlled junior colleges equalled the publicly controlled two-year institutions engaged in teacher education in 1950. Eight years later, however, there were eighteen more public than private institutions, ninety-three as compared to seventy-five schools.

The number of universities and liberal arts colleges, and the more recently developed multipurpose institutions engaged in the professional preparation of teachers, has increased rapidly since 1910. Privately controlled institutions of these types exceed the number of public institutions from 1870 to the present. The sharp numerical increase in these institutions, both public and private, during the last twenty-five years can be attributed, in part, to the number of teachers colleges converted to multipurpose institutions during this period. From 1930 to 1958 the number of teachers colleges decreased from 140 to 95.

Figure 1 presents a graphic comparison of the total number of normal schools, teachers colleges, liberal arts, multipurpose colleges and universities, and junior or two-year colleges as institutions for teacher education from 1870 to 1958. It is perhaps significant that the normal school and the teachers college are both undergoing a decline in numbers during a period when the need for teachers is increasing dramatically each year. This development is believed to forecast the ultimate demise of the teachers college as an institution for teacher preparation. As fewer teachers colleges are created, and as more broaden their functions to those of multipurpose colleges and universities, it is increasingly clear that teacher education is becoming a responsibility assigned to universities and other multipurpose institutions.

The transition in type of institutions for teacher education can be aptly illustrated by developments in states such

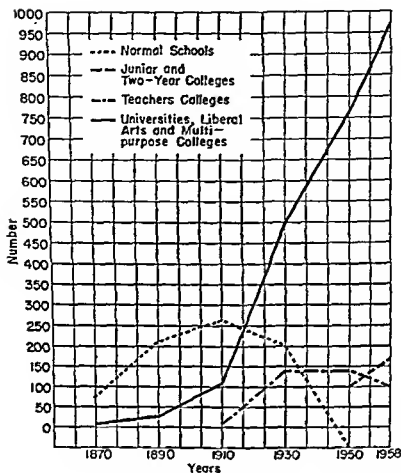


FIGURE 1. Comparison of Different Classification of Teacher-Education Institutions, 1870-1958.

as Ohio, Michigan, Illinois, and Wisconsin. State-supported institutions in each illustrate one or more stages of the change from teachers colleges to multipurpose colleges or universities. Teachers colleges in these states first changed their functions to multipurpose institutions offering, in addition to programs of teacher education, general liberal arts work and specialization in such fields as business, art, music, and pre-engineering, pre-law, or pre-medicine. The next step was to change the title and broaden functions even further to those of universities. Consequently, in all these states,

universities exist which formerly were teachers colleges. In Wisconsin, Illinois, and Michigan, state colleges, which as recently as the close of World War II were teachers colleges, are endeavoring to move toward the university pattern of organization.

A classification of four-year institutions for teacher education by organization, function, and offering, rather than by title, presents a more complete and perhaps more accurate picture of the numerical distribution, by type and control, of institutions now engaging in teacher education. (See Table 3.) For purposes of this classification any four-year college offering one or two professional programs of training, in addition to basic liberal arts curricula and pedagogical preparation, is classified as a multipurpose college even though it may be called a teachers or liberal arts college. Land grant universities differ from land grant colleges in maintaining professional schools other than agriculture.

TABLE 3

FOUR-YEAR INSTITUTIONS FOR TEACHER EDUCATION
CLASSIFIED BY ORGANIZATION, 1958 *

Classification	Number and Control		
	Public	Private	Total
Teacher colleges	80	15	95
Liberal arts colleges	2	43	45
Multipurpose colleges	134	561	695
Land grant colleges	17	0	17
Universities	50	110	160
Land grant universities	48	0	48
Total	331	729	1060

* Education Directory 1957-1958, Part 3, *Higher Education* (Washington, D.C.: United States Office of Education, 1958)

In terms of type of organization and function, the extent to which teacher education in four-year institutions is today the responsibility of multipurpose colleges and universities is readily evident from the figures in Table 3. More than 86

per cent of the 1060 institutions preparing teachers fall in this category, which includes all types except single-purpose liberal arts and teachers colleges. The largest category is multipurpose colleges, which includes 695 of the total institutions. Privately controlled colleges in this category outnumber those under public control. The next largest category is universities, with 160 institutions included. Of the entire group of four-year institutions engaged in teacher education, 729, or 68 per cent, are privately controlled as compared to the 331 under public jurisdiction.

PROSPECTIVE TEACHERS GRADUATING FROM DIFFERENT CLASSIFICATIONS OF INSTITUTIONS

Additional insight concerning the responsibility of different types of institutions of higher learning for the education of teachers is found in the number of graduates who qualify as teachers. The number of different types of institutions provides one basis for appraising the kind of preparation given teachers; but more important, in terms of the impact of various types of institutions on American education, are the proportions of prospective teachers graduated by particular kinds of institutions.

As shown in Table 4, 117,529 qualified teachers were graduated from all four-year institutions of higher learning in the United States and its territories in 1957. About 44 per cent more were graduated from either a university or land grant college. Only a little over 15 per cent were graduates of a single-purpose teachers or liberal arts college.

Publicly controlled institutions prepared more than two-thirds of the prospective teachers. Publicly controlled universities exceeded their privately controlled counterparts in the number of teachers graduated, having prepared almost 70 per cent of those attending universities. Land grant universities, it will be noted, prepare almost as many teachers as do publicly managed non-land-grant universities—14,910 as compared to 15,950.¹ In the category of public institu-

¹ Taken together, land grant universities and other general publicly controlled universities prepare more teachers than any other type of public institution.

TABLE I

QUALIFIED TEACHERS GRADUATING FROM FOUR-YEAR INSTITUTIONS
OF HIGHER LEARNING IN THE UNITED STATES, 1957 *

Classifications of Institutions	Number of Qualified Teacher Graduates		
	Public	Private	Total
Teacher colleges	17,010	825	17,835
Liberal arts colleges	111	1,118	1,259
Multipurpose colleges	28,666	22,888	51,554
Land grant colleges	2,733	0	2,733
Universities	15,950	13,288	29,238
Land grant universities	14,910	0	14,910
<i>Totals</i>	<i>79,350</i>	<i>38,149</i>	<i>117,529</i>

* Information obtained from reports from state departments of education and, in some states, directly from institutions (including Alaska, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico).

tions, teachers colleges today graduate only about 15 per cent of those qualified for teaching. Clearly, in terms of numbers of prospective teachers graduated, teacher education has become the function of the multipurpose college and the university. A comparison of the number of institutions by classifications (without reference to control) and the number of graduates prepared for teaching is presented in Table 5 and summarized visually in Figure 2.

Universities, which represent the larger institutions of higher learning, prepare more teachers in proportion to their number than do other types of schools. All universities together comprise only 20 per cent of the institutions, yet they produced 38 per cent of the graduates prepared for teaching in 1957. Multipurpose colleges on the other hand constitute 65 per cent of the total number of institutions for teacher education but graduated only 44 per cent of the prospective teachers that year. Teachers colleges represented 9 per cent of the total institutions and graduated 15 per cent of those prepared to teach. Single-purpose liberal arts colleges represent a negligible force in teacher education both in terms of number of institutions and the proportion of the graduates produced. Land grant colleges

TABLE 5

COMPARISON OF THE NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF INSTITUTIONS
FOR TEACHER EDUCATION AND THE NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE
OF PROSPECTIVE TEACHERS GRADUATED IN 1957 *

Classification	Institutions		Graduates	
	Number	% of Total	Number	% of Total
Teacher colleges	95	9	17,835	15
Liberal arts colleges. . . .	45	4	1,259	1
Multipurpose colleges	695	65	51,551	44
Land grant colleges.	17	2	2,733	2
Universities " " " "	160	15	29,238	25
Land grant universities.	48	5	14,910	13
Totals	1,060	100	117,529	100

* Information obtained from reports from state departments of education and, in some states, directly from institutions (including Alaska, Hawaii and Puerto Rico).

Classification
of
Institutions

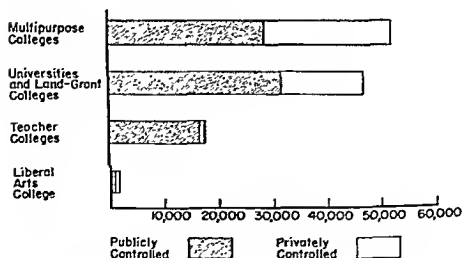


FIGURE 2. Relative Responsibility for Teacher Education of Different Classifications of Institutions (based on number of graduates in 1957).

and universities, considered together, produce twice their expected proportion of teachers. The land grant university, with only 5 per cent of the total schools, produced 13 per cent of the teachers, two and one-half times its expected production.

TABLE 6

QUALIFIED ELEMENTARY- AND SECONDARY-SCHOOL TEACHERS
GRADUATING FROM FOUR-YEAR INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER LEARNING
IN THE UNITED STATES, 1957 *

Classification of Institutions	Number of Institutions	Levels of Preparation of Graduates		
		Elementary	Secondary	Total
<i>Teacher colleges</i> ..	95	9,409	8,426	17,835
Public	80	8,690	8,311	17,010
Private	15	710	115	825
<i>Liberal arts colleges</i>	43	461	798	1,259
Public	2	29	82	111
Private	43	432	716	1,148
<i>Multipurpose colleges</i> .	695	22,619	23,905	51,554
Public	134	13,256	15,410	28,666
Private	561	9,363	13,495	22,858
<i>Land grant colleges</i>	17	555	2,178	2,733
<i>Universities</i>	160	12,457	16,781	29,238
Public	50	6,928	9,022	15,950
Private	110	5,529	7,759	13,288
<i>Land grant universities</i>	48	5,130	9,770	41,910
<i>Totals</i> ..	1,060	50,711	66,818	117,529

* Information obtained from reports from state departments of education and, in some states, directly from institutions (including Alaska, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico)

The numbers of elementary- and secondary-school teachers graduated in 1957 by the various kinds of institutions are shown in Table 6. Teachers colleges, contrary to popular opinion, prepare almost as many high-school as elementary teachers. Equally surprising to some will be the fact that more than 40 per cent of the teachers graduated from universities and almost 35 per cent of those graduated

from land grant universities were prepared for elementary-school teaching. These ratios prevail in both public and private institutions. About 44 per cent of the teachers prepared in multipurpose colleges are eligible to teach in elementary schools.

ACCREDITATION OF INSTITUTIONS FOR TEACHER EDUCATION

General accreditation of colleges and universities has been practiced for half a century. Specific accreditation for teacher education purposes, however, is a post-World War II development. For general accreditation purposes the principal agencies are the regional accrediting associations. The National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education is the established national body for the specific professional accreditation of programs of teacher education. The National Council carries out its accreditation in cooperation with the regional accrediting agencies, relying upon these associations for general accrediting and data regarding the basic liberal arts work in the teacher education programs. As a rule, institutions for teacher education, therefore, might be expected to be accredited by both the regional association and the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education.

Accreditation by the National Council is such a new practice that many institutions of high quality have not yet been accredited. Because the National Council started its accredited list with the institutions which had formerly been accredited by the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, some institutions which have been accredited by it have programs of teacher education which are markedly inferior to those which have not yet been accredited.

The picture of accreditation presented by data in Table 7 should not be taken as a classification of quality programs of teacher education. Rather, it is presented to depict the present status of professional accreditation for teacher education as a background for the study of this subject in

the present and future. Its validity in identifying institutions meeting minimum standards for programs is more reliable, it should be pointed out, in the category of regional accreditation than the National Council.

Of the 1060 four-year institutions offering programs designed for teacher education purposes, 148 have no accreditation at all (see Table 7). Two hundred and ninety-one are accredited by both the regional associations and the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education. This number is changing, as about 35 to 40 additional institutions are approved by the National Council each year.² Six hundred and seventeen institutions are accredited only by their regional associations. Four institutions are listed as accredited by the National Council only. It is pointed out that adopted policies of the National Council prohibit any additional institutions from being accredited for teacher education purposes in the future unless they are also accredited by the regional association.

One hundred and thirty-eight of the 148 nonaccredited colleges are private institutions. Three of the four accredited by the National Council and not by the regional association, are public colleges. Fifty-four of the 291 colleges and universities accredited by both the regional associations and the National Council are privately controlled. Yet five hundred and thirty-six of the 617 institutions accredited only by the regional associations are private colleges and universities. These figures indicate that public institutions, mostly teachers colleges and multipurpose institutions, have sought accreditation by the National Council in greater numbers than have privately controlled institutions. Almost two-thirds of the publicly controlled state universities and over 46 per cent of the land grant institutions are accredited by the National Council as well as by the regional associations. Only 22 per cent of privately controlled universities enjoy

² National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education, *Annual Lists, 1953-1958* (Washington, D. C.: The Council).

TABLE 7
ACCREDITATION FOR TEACHER EDUCATION
IN FOUR-YEAR INSTITUTIONS, 1958

Type	Number	National Council Only	Regional Ass'n Only	Both Agencies	Non- accredited
Teacher colleges	95	2	9	71	13
Public	80	2	5	68	5
Private	15	0	4	3	8
Liberal arts colleges	45	0	39	1	5
Public	2	0	1	0	1
Private	43	0	38	1	4
Multipurpose colleges	695	2	437	126	130
Public	131	1	28	101	4
Private	561	1	409	25	126
Land grant colleges	17	0	13	4	0
Universities	160	0	98	62	0
Public	50	0	13	37	0
Private	110	0	85	25	0
Land grant universities	48	0	21	27	0
Totals	1060	4	617	291	148

Information assembled from: *Educational Directory*, 1957-58, Washington, D.C.: United States Office of Education; *Annual Lists*, 1958, Washington, D.C.: National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education.

such accreditation status. Public teachers colleges, with 85 per cent of 80 accredited institutions listed by both regional associations, and the National Council have attained a higher percentage of member institutions than any other category of institutions. This may be attributed primarily to the predominance of public teachers colleges in the original membership of the American Association for Colleges for Teacher Education, which became the first accredited list of the National Council.

SOURCES OF PROSPECTIVE TEACHERS IN TERMS OF ACCREDITATION OF PREPARING INSTITUTIONS. Over the long run, the kind of accreditation accorded to institutions which prepare teachers should provide an index of the quality of teachers produced. As far as accreditation by the regional associa-

tions is concerned this is probably already true. Figures for graduates from National Council accredited institutions indicated that the colleges and universities involved have submitted their professional programs for evaluation by representatives of the profession.

It is significant, perhaps, that the nonaccredited institutions and those accredited by only the National Council and not the regional associations, the two categories that include the more inferior institutions, produced only a total of 3,406 of the 117,529 teachers graduated in 1957. This number represents less than 2 per cent of the prospective teachers graduated that year. Equally important is the fact that 72,702 of the graduates, 62 per cent, came from institutions accredited by both the regional associations and the National Council for Accreditation for Teacher Education. It is estimated that 97 per cent of the prospective teachers attend institutions accredited either by the National Council or the regional associations or by both.

Many of the institutions accredited by both the regional associations and the National Council are the larger schools, producing the greatest numbers of qualified teachers. When these graduates are combined with those from institutions accredited only by the regional associations, many of which may not yet have had an opportunity to obtain accreditation by the National Council, a somewhat more favorable picture of the accreditation of teacher-preparing institutions can be visualized. How positive such an impression may be is dependent upon the confidence that can be placed in the standards of the accrediting associations and agencies.

INSTITUTIONS OFFERING GRADUATE PROGRAMS FOR EDUCATIONAL PERSONNEL

The extent of participation in the preparation of leadership for educational programs is shown in Table 8. Of the 1060 four-year institutions engaged in teacher education, 470 offer work leading to the master's degree at the end of the first year of graduate study. This number includes 241 private institutions and 229 public colleges and universities.

Although slightly more than half of the teachers colleges offer first-year graduate work, it is clear that universities and multipurpose colleges, comprising 411 of the 470 institutions, are carrying the major responsibility for this level of preparation of educational personnel.

TABLE 8

CLASSIFICATION AND NUMBER OF INSTITUTIONS OFFERING
GRADUATE PROGRAMS FOR TEACHER EDUCATION, 1957

Classifications of Institutions	Graduate Programs Offered		
	Master's Programs	Sixth-Year Programs	Doctoral Programs
<i>Teacher colleges</i>	53	1	1
Public	46	1	1
Private	7	0	0
<i>Liberal arts colleges</i>	6	0	1
Public	1	0	0
Private	5	0	1
<i>Multipurpose colleges</i>	195	7	2
Public	76	4	0
Private	119	3	2
<i>Universities</i>	160	40	62
Public	50	16	27
Private	110	24	35
<i>Land grant universities</i>	48	13	29
<i>Land grant colleges</i>	8	0	4
Totals	470	61	99

Source: *Educational Directory, 1956-57*, Washington, D.C.: United States Office of Education; *Earned Degrees Conferred by Higher Educational Institutions, 1956-57*, Washington, D.C.: United States Office of Education; Robert H. Koenker, *Sixth-Year Graduate Programs in Teacher Education*, Muncie, Indiana: Ball State Teachers College, 1957, and postal card replies from institutions offering post master's degree programs.

A relatively new development is the offering of a degree or certificate at the end of two years of graduate study or the sixth year of collegiate and graduate work. Sixty-one institutions now make such an award.³ Of these schools,

³ See also Robert H. Koenker, *Six Year Graduate Programs in Teacher Education* (Muncie, Indiana: Ball State Teachers College, 1957).

fifty-three are universities, public or private. The nature of the awards made at the end of the sixth year of study is indicated by the tabulations in Table 9. Forty-two of the 61 institutions award a certificate or diploma for two years of graduate study, providing that the student successfully completes a planned program of work. *Certificate*, or *Diploma of Advanced Graduate Study*, is the title most frequently used to designate this type of recognition. Five institutions award a two-year master's degree. The twenty institutions which grant a degree after two years of graduate study call it by the titles *Specialist in Education* or *Education Specialist*. Both public and privately controlled universities have shared about equally in the emphasis placed upon the award for two years of graduate study. Seventeen of the 61 institutions making such awards do not offer doctoral degrees.

TABLE 9

CLASSIFICATION OF INSTITUTIONS AWARDING
SIXTH-YEAR CERTIFICATES AND DEGREES, 1957

Classifications of Institutions	Sixth-Year Awards		Total Institutions
	Certificate	Degree	
<i>Teacher colleges</i> .. .	0	1	1
Public .. .	0	1	1
Private .. .	0	0	0
<i>Liberal arts colleges</i> .. .	0	0	0
Public .. .	0	0	0
Private .. .	0	0	0
<i>Multipurpose colleges</i> .. .	4	3	7
Public .. .	2	2	4
Private .. .	2	1	3
<i>Universities</i> .. .	28	13	40 *
Public .. .	8	8	16
Private .. .	20	5	24 *
<i>Land grant universities</i> .. .	10	3	13
<i>Land grant colleges</i> .. .	0	0	0
<i>Totals</i> .. .	42 *	20 *	61 *

* One institution awards both a certificate and a degree.

Information obtained from postal card replies from institutions offering post-master's degree programs

Number and types of institutions offering the Doctor of Philosophy and Doctor of Education degrees are shown in Table 10. The doctorate in education, either the Ph.D. with a major in education or the Ed. D. degree, is now offered by 99 institutions, 61 publicly controlled and 38 private schools. Of the 99 colleges and universities which offer doctoral degrees, one is a teachers college, one a liberal arts college, two are multipurpose institutions, four are land grant colleges and all the other 91 are universities. Forty-six offer both the Ph. D. and the Ed. D.; thirty-one award only the Ed. D; while 22 grant only the Ph. D. A total of 77 offer the Ed. D; sixty-eight award the Ph. D. In terms of numerical responsibility for providing doctoral-level work for educational personnel, public institutions represent over 60 per cent of the total group.

TABLE 10
CLASSIFICATION OF INSTITUTIONS OFFERING
PH.D. AND ED.D. DEGREES IN 1957

Classifications of Institutions	Doctoral Programs Offered			Total Institutions
	Ed.D. Only	Ph.D. Only	Both Ed.D. & Ph.D.	
<i>Teacher colleges</i>	1	0	0	1
Public	1	0	0	1
Private	0	0	0	0
<i>Liberal arts colleges</i>	0	1	0	1
Public	0	0	0	0
Private	0	1	0	1
<i>Multipurpose colleges</i>	0	1	1	2
Public	0	0	0	0
Private	0	1	1	2
<i>Universities</i>	19	11	32	62
Public	7	3	17	27
Private	12	8	15	35
<i>Land grant universities</i>	9	7	13	29
<i>Land grant colleges</i>	2	2	0	4
<i>Totals</i>	31	22	46	99

Information obtained from postal card replies from institutions offering post master's degree programs.

SOURCE OF ADVANCED GRADUATE DEGREES. Beyond the institutions offering graduate degrees in education, one must examine the proportion of degrees awarded by different categories of institutions to gain a full picture of the preparation of the leadership in American schools. Without doubt, the master's degree is coming to be looked upon as a part of the preparation of the master teacher. Although in the past it has been available only in universities, it is increasingly being conferred by all types of institutions for teacher education. In fact more than 40 per cent of all four-year institutions now offer it. As shown in Table 11, one-sixth of the master degrees awarded are now granted by teachers colleges and over one-third by multipurpose institutions. Universities, both public and private, award only a little more than

TABLE 11
ADVANCED GRADUATE DEGREES AND CERTIFICATES
AWARDED IN 1957

Classifications of Institutions	Graduate Degrees or Certificates Awarded			
	Master's Degree	Sixth Year Program	Ed D. Degree	Ph D. Degree
<i>Teachers colleges</i> . . .	5,019	2	20	0
Public . . .	1,790	2	20	0
Private . . .	229	0	0	0
<i>Liberal arts colleges</i> . .	313	0	0	0
Public . . .	31	0	0	0
Private . . .	311	0	0	0
<i>Multipurpose colleges</i>	12,279	50	21	16
Public . . .	5,926	8	0	0
Private . . .	6,353	42	21	16
<i>Land grant colleges</i>	765	0	0	4
<i>Universities</i> . . .	7,667	615	674	396
Public . . .	4,036	176	189	89
Private . . .	3,631	469	485	307
<i>Land grant universities</i>	4,174	32	273	203
<i>Totals</i> . . .	30,249	779	983	619

Information on master's degrees obtained from *Earned Degree Conferred by Higher Educational Institutions, 1956-57*, Washington, D C: United States Office of Education; on sixth-year awards and doctoral degrees, from postal card replies from institutions offering post-master's degree programs.

one-third of the graduate degrees at this level. About two-thirds of the masters degrees earned by teachers are from public institutions.

With respect to the certificates or diplomas awarded at the end of two years of graduate study, privately controlled institutions have taken more of a lead. In 1957, 511 of the 779 six-year certificates or degrees were issued by nonpublic institutions. At the doctoral level, responsibility for preparing leaders for educational assignments is about equally shared by public and private universities; the number of doctors degrees in education conferred by the latter was 829 as compared to 778 by publicly controlled universities, in 1957.

TREND TOWARD MULTIPURPOSE INSTITUTIONS AND UNIVERSITIES

From 1935 to 1954, 76 state normal schools or teachers colleges changed their type of organization to that of the multipurpose state college or university.⁴ These institutions were located in 22 states. These changes in title and function of formerly single-purpose institutions for teacher education indicate the trend that is reflected in enrollment patterns to the multipurpose college or university as the dominant institution for teacher education in the United States.

The change in title from normal school or teachers college to state college or university is accompanied by an expansion of programs to include the various liberal arts and often other professional fields. Enrollments become more cosmopolitan and faculty resources are expanded. In general, such developments represent a healthy trend for teacher education. Proponents point out that multipurpose institutions provide a more stimulating environment, a broader program of studies, more competent faculties, and a wider range of choices for students. The converted teachers colleges are attracting better and greater numbers of stu-

⁴ Fred F. Beach and Robert F. Will, *The State and Education* (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare), p. 174.

dents, more financial support, both of which contribute to higher standards.

It is generally conceded that the day of the teachers college in the United States is passing. Most students of teacher education consider this a good trend. They see the time approaching when the education of teachers can no longer be left to the inadequately supported and poorly respected single-purpose teachers college. They applaud the trend toward making teacher education the function of multi-purpose colleges and universities, so that the total resources of the institutions can be drawn upon for teacher education policies and programs. They see also in this trend the long awaited involvement of subject-matter specialists along with professors of education in the planning and administering of teacher education programs.

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CHAPTER 6

Institutional Patterns

Factors of local history, permitting contrasts in cultural outlook and creating independent situations, have determined differences in institutional patterns for teacher education in the United States. While national professional and scholarly organizations, accrediting associations, exchange of information through numerous journals, and mobility of personnel have all operated to promote national unity in the field of teacher education, certain clearly distinguishable patterns still prevail. These may be variously designated, but for purposes of this discussion will be recognized as existing in four different aspects of the teacher education program: (1) administrative patterns, (2) curricular patterns, (3) time-degree patterns, and (4) product patterns.

ADMINISTRATIVE PATTERNS

Five administrative patterns appear distinguishable, namely, (1) liberal arts colleges with departments of professional education, (2) independent teachers colleges especially designed for the education of teachers, (3) specialized trade schools, technological institutes, or single-emphasis vocational schools, (4) universities with independent schools or colleges of education, and (5) all-institution programs for the education of teachers. Many variations, and mixed models, of these patterns exist. In addition, other arrangements, such as high-school departments for teacher educa-

tion (which seem now to be on the way out) and special postgraduate institutes of teacher education modeled on certain European practices, are to be found in a few situations.

THE LIBERAL ARTS COLLEGE WITH A DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION PATTERN. As pressure for better trained teachers increased, liberal arts colleges and universities introduced courses in pedagogy and the art of teaching. This development largely began during the last quarter of the nineteenth century.

For the most part, the addition of courses in education to the standard liberal arts pattern was intended only to help graduates meet legal certification requirements. Control of the program was in the hands of the liberal arts faculty, which did not in many institutions look with favor on the professional preparation of teachers. Because of the failure of liberal arts college faculties to exhibit genuine interest in teacher education, actual jurisdiction of the program for teachers, including both the pedagogical courses and much of the work in general and specialized courses, devolved upon faculty members of the departments of education.

The liberal arts pattern, developing as it did against the protest of professors of liberal arts, inevitably produced resentment against education courses and professors of education. Despite high standards for faculty personnel in most fields, such institutions often accepted second-rate professors in departments of education. A low level of prestige for teacher education as well as bitter internal conflict have been typical in this pattern of organization.

THE INDEPENDENT TEACHERS COLLEGE PATTERN. At the turn of the century, the ultimate in the hopes and ambitions of most teacher educators was the *fiscally independent* teachers college. Such institutions thrived in traditions of the normal school, which emphasized either the extended study of elementary-school subjects or pedagogy, or both. With the growing up of the teachers colleges, new administrative patterns sought to achieve a better balance between the liberal and specialized subject preparation along with the pedagogical emphasis. In effect, the content study of

prospective teachers was pitched more at the college level. Although the program, particularly for elementary-school teachers, still provided a heavy emphasis on technical training, it became more similar to the pattern of liberal arts colleges and universities.

In this pattern for teacher education, control is in the total faculty—including both subject specialists as well as educationists. In many situations, however, the subject-matter professor possessed a heavy background in the field of pedagogy. The tendency, as a result, was for control of teacher education to be exercised by those whose professional commitments were more to the methodological rather than to subject-matter aspects of preparation for teaching.

During its early period, the teachers college enjoyed strong political support and widespread acceptance by the public at large. Members of faculties of such institutions were dedicated to their mission and generally looked upon those in departments of education in liberal arts colleges or universities as rather unfortunate poor relations. Through their efforts, the field of professional education was highlighted in the program of preparation for teaching. The model school was developed as a demonstration and practice-teaching laboratory. Likewise, the pattern of required courses in education for certification for teaching came into being.

The early public endorsement of the teachers college pattern developed as it became generally recognized that liberal arts colleges and universities were unwilling to provide the professional preparation thought to be needed by elementary-school teachers. Later programs in teachers colleges were expanded to include the training of teachers for high-school work. Often this expansion took place in special fields, such as music, art, business education, physical education, or the social studies, which had failed to receive adequate support in liberal arts colleges and universities.

THE SPECIAL SCHOOL PATTERN. The special school pattern is highly variegated, principally because of the different sorts of schools grouped in this category. Included are industrial arts training schools, business colleges, vocational

schools, music conservatories, art schools, and some agricultural colleges. In these schools, it would appear that emphasis aside from subject specialization is primarily upon the pedagogy of the subject. Practice is commonly a component of the course work that constitutes the area of specialization. Teachers in such schools are skilled technicians and successful practitioners of their specialties. They have frequently come up through the ranks of skilled workers, artists, musicians, salesmen, or secretaries. Many of them have learned to teach through experience. The pattern of teacher education is in many respects quite different from those typical for elementary- and secondary-school teachers. Its focus is directed more toward the apprenticeship type of training with content preparation in the field of specialization closely integrated with practice.

UNIVERSITIES WITH INDEPENDENT SCHOOLS OR COLLEGES OF EDUCATION. The public endorsement of the programs of teacher education developed in teachers colleges led to pressures, through legislative appropriations and certification procedures as well as other less formal avenues, for the establishment of independent schools or colleges of education in state universities. Such divisions for teacher education initially had varying degrees of independence, both fiscal and with respect to programs. Increasingly, most have become independent colleges with their own faculties, curricula, and budgets, comparable in organization to other professional schools such as law, medicine, agriculture, or commerce.

THE ALL-INSTITUTIONAL PATTERN. The long and bitter conflict between liberal arts and education professors promises now to yield to a negotiated truce that will give proper recognition to the importance of each group in the preparation of teachers. Both liberal arts and teachers colleges have in recent years tended to embrace a more central position endorsing a balanced emphasis on liberal studies, subject specialization, and professional education. The resulting pattern for teacher education is coming to be called the all-institutional approach to teacher education. It has the distinguishing characteristic of involving all who contribute to

the preparation of teachers in the policy-making functions of teacher education. In a strict sense, since this trend represents a return to the historical arrangement that prevailed originally in both liberal arts and teachers colleges, it is not much of a "new look" in the field of teacher education. Needless to say, the all-institutional approach poses a challenge in some institutions. Many see gains as well as possible losses in this pattern of organization for teacher education.

The all-institutional approach is being developed in many institutions, such as the University of Colorado and Temple University, under the leadership of the school, department, or college of education. At the University of Wisconsin, which has pioneered in this pattern for teacher education, its genesis came from the combined efforts and interests of professors of both education and liberal arts. Faculty members from the several schools and colleges which offer courses pertinent to the preparation of teachers enjoy full status as members of the faculty of the School of Education. Courses ordinarily offered in other colleges are not duplicated in the School of Education, as is frequently the case in independent schools and colleges of education. In general, the result may be said to encourage a greater breadth and depth of interest and concern for the total program of teacher education. Long-time observers of this development at Wisconsin believe that the all-institutional approach has tended to provide for a better balance among the several components of teacher education programs. It has brought stimulation to many professors of liberal arts who find in their work with the School of Education an opportunity to relate their subject specialties to education at elementary- and secondary-school levels.

One fairly well established part of the independent school or college of education pattern has been the training school. The campus school was developed to provide teacher-educating institutions with better control over an important component in the program of preparation; namely, the supervised practice of teaching. Typically, the laboratory

school is controlled completely by the professional department or school where independence of the professional division for teacher education prevails. In the all-institutional pattern of organization, the campus school is seen as a laboratory for the entire institution, for subject-matter departments as well as for the department of education, in which research and the demonstration of ideal programs may go forward.

CURRICULUM PATTERNS

Another way to classify the patterns of institutional organization for teacher education is by the type of curriculum provided for prospective teachers. In some situations the differentiation pertains only to the professional aspects of the pre-service program; in others it includes also the general education and subject specialization.

TWO PEDAGOGICAL EMPHASES. Broadly speaking, many institutions have adopted curricular patterns that emphasize one of two common approaches to the professional preparation of the teacher. The one that has most typically characterized teachers colleges has been the "how-to-do" type of specialization. This emphasis is probably more characteristic of programs for elementary teachers, regardless of the type of institution, than of those programs which prepare for high school teaching; yet it is found in both. The "how-to-do" courses are of many kinds: general and special-methods courses; courses in audio-visual aids; courses which deal with theory of learning and teaching through verbal avenues; courses in guidance, extracurricular direction, child study; and student teaching.

The opposing pattern emphasizes the pedagogical foundations: history of education, educational psychology, philosophy of education; and the liberal arts foundations, such as biological sciences, sociological studies and psychological developments, the communicative arts, and philosophy. Knowledge of procedure is provided in this type of emphasis through observation, student teaching, and various sorts of internships. This pattern is more readily discernible in the

education of secondary-school teachers than in programs for elementary teachers. The latter type are likely to have more emphasis on the "how-to-do" courses in education.

LEVEL OF PREPARATION PATTERNS. Paralleling the traditions pertaining to pedagogical emphasis have been those that relate to the level of preparation. Institutional patterns existing in various types of colleges and universities often are more similar for the training of elementary teachers, for example, than they are in the same institution for the preparation of all teachers.

The elementary-school pattern. The elementary school pattern has persisted over time. Its most characteristic features are (1) school subject review courses, (2) emphasis on methodology, and (3) the model school. As first conceived, it was intended to prepare high-school graduates to teach the basic skills of the rural elementary school. The pattern has persisted. When appraised in terms of the insights and needs of the time, most of its features seem reasonable enough; but times have changed. The elementary schools are no longer concerned almost solely with instruction in reading, writing, and arithmetic. They are, instead, highly complex educational operations. Currently, leaders in elementary education are torn between preparing the generalist type of teacher and developing highly competent specialists. Emphasis on the all-around development of the child and the self-contained classroom have operated to produce the generalist type of teacher—one who teaches all subjects of the elementary-school program, including art, music, physical education, and science. Many people believe that this jack-of-all-trades teacher is the major factor in the superficiality of elementary education in many communities. New patterns for the preparation of elementary teachers are currently being studied to produce a better balance between the generalist and the specialist concept of the elementary-school teacher.

The secondary-school pattern. The education of secondary school teachers has been predominantly subject centered, with courses in pedagogy added. Subject-matter patterns required for prospective teachers have been dictated in

most cases by the departmental structure prevailing in given institutions. Thus, prospective teachers take majors and minors in accordance with patterns established for liberal arts graduates rather than in terms of the requirements of the fields they are preparing to teach. The restrictions imposed on the development of subject-matter competence can be illustrated by the fact that in some institutions an English major cannot include in his program courses in linguistics, world literature, or drama.

A further weakness of the major and minor pattern of organization of the content preparation has been the superficiality which results when a prospective high-school teacher must prepare to teach as many as three fields. New patterns of dual majors, or majors combined with supporting minors, are being developed in some institutions to counteract this deficiency.

Most patterns of preparations for high-school teachers place about equal emphasis on the "how-to-do" courses in education and those in the foundation fields. In general, the amount of instruction in pedagogy that is required is less than included in programs for elementary-school teachers.

SUBJECT-MATTER SPECIALIZATION PATTERNS. Patterns of subject specialization vary in terms of the amount of work required, sequence of study in fields of specialization (two, three or four years), the combination of subjects, the nature of courses provided, and the relation of the content to the fields of high-school and elementary-school teaching. The widespread concern for the depth of the teacher's knowledge of the subjects taught has supported determined appeals by professors of subject fields for more of the student's college-study time. Recently, however, some have made the point that content fields need to be reorganized and the programs of study so adjusted to individual differences to permit students to learn more in even less time. This focus on efficiency in teacher education is supported by the fact that in almost every phase of life, except education, ways have been found to improve efficiency and quality, thereby saving both time and money.

Experimental patterns in subject specialization areas include: those which provide for different combinations of subjects such as mathematics and physics, mathematics and chemistry; the development of fused courses in subject fields to condense pertinent knowledge; the relating of certain graduate courses in subject fields to the content knowledge that teachers need.

Elementary education has presented an especially difficult problem to the subject field patterns generally maintained. Because the subject matter of the elementary-school curriculum has been thought of as elementary in nature, prospective elementary teachers have not been required to develop intensive scholarship in one particular field. Recent considerations of this viewpoint¹ stress the necessity of elementary teachers' having a deeper grasp of subject-matter concepts, sounder preparation for scholarship, and depth in at least one subject field.

GENERAL EDUCATION PATTERNS.² The cultural patterns of the times, the basic nature of a democratic society, and the demands for the liberally educated person dictate that all teachers be well grounded in the field of general education. Patterns that characterize institutions which prepare teachers have generally represented only minor deviations from the liberal arts traditions. Some institutions have attempted to design patterns of general education in terms of the unique roles that teachers play as carriers of the culture and examples of good citizenship.

Recently, questions are being raised about the need for teachers, as well as all college graduates, to be better grounded in science, particularly in the fields of physics and chemistry. Studies have shown that prospective teachers, especially those preparing to teach in elementary schools, tend to avoid these fields unless they major in them. It is argued that in a scientific age general education must place emphasis on literacy in the field of science.

¹ W. Earl Armstrong, "The Teacher Education Curriculum," *The Journal of Teacher Education*, 8 (September, 1957), pp. 230-43.

² See Chapter 8, "The General Education of Teachers."

Questions have been posed, as well, about the need for all teachers to develop proficiency in a second language. The tendency has been for patterns of general education to neglect emphasis on foreign language study in the pre-college admission work as well as in the program required for college graduation.

Another illustration of the weaknesses which have been identified in programs of general education for teachers is the neglect of the study of economics and finance by teachers.

CURRICULAR SEQUENCE PATTERNS. Curricular sequence patterns range from those that require general education, specialization and professional orientation—to be completed in this order—to programs that require that these three aspects of the prospective teacher's college preparation be studied simultaneously. The latter type usually admit students to schools of education at the beginning of the freshman year of college. Some require the completion of all general education during the first two years; then provide for the study of the subject fields to be accompanied by courses in education. Requirements in various institutions range from extremely rigid patterns of course sequence, with specifications that apply to all students, to others which permit adaptation of the sequence to individual students.

Curricular sequence patterns often vary for different fields or levels of specialization within the same institution. Specialized areas, such as physical education, music, art, home economics, agriculture, industrial arts, and commerce, tend to demand greater rigidity in curricular sequences than do others.

TIME AND DEGREE PATTERNS FOR TEACHER EDUCATION

At least three discernible time patterns prevail in various types of teacher education institutions; namely, the traditional normal school on two or fewer years of college work, the four-year degree program, and the post-graduate five- and six-year patterns. Degrees are related directly to time patterns.

THE NORMAL SCHOOL TIME PATTERN. The normal school time pattern is a carry-over from the days when most teachers

were trained in post-elementary school programs, in special institutes, in high-school-teacher training departments, and later in the first two years of normal school study. Elementary teachers were qualified for teaching by the simplest forms of pedagogical training. For many years high-school teachers could be certified by examination that could be undertaken at almost any point in the time sequence of preparation, depending upon state and local conditions.

Although it is customarily assumed that the normal school time pattern is a relic of the past, in some states it still is popular. The junior college plays the role of the normal school in states which permit licensing for teaching on two years of college work. Four-year teachers' and multipurpose colleges also sometimes provide normal school time patterns of two or three years' duration.

FOUR-YEAR DEGREE PATTERNS. The four-year college degree pattern is currently the most generally accepted one for the education of teachers, both elementary and secondary. Less than four years of college study is now considered sub-normal, with more and more teachers and teacher educators looking favorably upon five- and six-year programs. The conflict on the question of the bachelor of science degree versus the bachelor of arts is largely one of the past century. The two ideologies have now apparently achieved a state of peaceful coexistence, with neither having proved beyond doubt its superiority as a pattern over the other. The same cannot be said for the bachelor of pedagogy, philosophy, or teaching, or similar titled degrees. The concentrated effort to make professional education of teachers the public scapegoat, or whipping boy, for all of education's shortcomings has played an important role in maintaining a label of inferiority on any bachelor's degree in education of a specialized character.

The experiments with teaching teams which are now developing in elementary and secondary schools may well lead to the stratification of the levels and competencies of educational personnel with parallel definitions of the length of time and appropriate degree programs for each member of

the instructional team. It may well be that some members of the team will be only *high-school graduates* functioning as teacher aids; others may have completed the equivalent of two years of college to prepare for work as educational technicians; some, no doubt, will be interns who have completed four years of college in preparation for teaching prior to their on-the-job apprenticeship; professional members of the team will likely have completed one or more years of graduate study.

POST-GRADUATE INSTITUTIONAL PATTERNS. Three patterns of post-graduate preparation for teaching are typical of the range of institutional provision beyond the undergraduate level. These include: the five-year program including a sequential organization of both undergraduate and fifth-year courses; the more informally structured baccalaureate degree programs followed by the traditional master's degree either in education or a subject field or in a combination of both; the fifth- and sixth-year internship with related study provided for graduates of liberal arts colleges. Variations of these three basic programs are to be found both in terms of courses emphasized and the arrangement of the work. The master's degree which does not require a thesis, for example, represents a modification popular in many institutions. The six-year master's degree and the certificate or specialists degree awarded at the end of two years of post-baccalaureate study are others.

Contrasting emphases in content courses, the field of pedagogy, as well as on the continuing liberal education of teachers in post-graduate programs contribute to variety in post-graduate patterns. Nor is the relationship between undergraduate and post-graduate patterns clearly defined. The undergraduate pattern in one institution may pass for the graduate pattern in another.

PATTERNS IN THE PRODUCT

Because of the many crosscurrents characteristic in most colleges, only an occasional institution is able to stamp its product discernibly. Vaguely, however, one gathers from

the claims of institutions that at least five sorts of products, or teacher graduates, are produced by teacher education institutions in the United States. These might be labeled as (a) the magnetic teacher; (b) the artisan teacher; (c) the experimentalist teacher; (d) the scholar teacher; and (e) the professional teacher. These terms probably represent mental mirages or wishful thinking on the parts of all teacher educators. It would be difficult to prove that any institution consistently develops teachers who could be placed in one or more of these categories. Nevertheless, these goals for products of teacher education, all of which have been endorsed by one institution or another, represent the patterns of products that institutions for teacher education envision.

THE MAGNETIC TEACHER. The staff in institutions which have this type of teacher as their ideal is developmentally oriented. Considerable importance is attached to personal fitness, personality development, and adjustment. On the operational side, emphasis is placed upon screening committees, counseling, and sociometrics. There are many learning activities designed to promote personal enrichment, ease in human relationships, and good mental health. The contrasting institution would say that personality development is not the teacher training institution's responsibility. It would say that the college is an intellectual institution primarily concerned with knowledge, abstract thinking, and scholarship. The prototype of the adjusted teacher type is the social butterfly, beauty queen extrovert, the muscle-bound personality boys, and the finishing school teacher; the contrasting teacher is the capped and gowned, academic introvert. It would seem that no institution has succeeded in turning out teachers just like this, but some have attempted it.

THE ARTISAN TEACHER. This pattern is more discernible than most. Here good teaching is thought to consist of certain very specific acts skillfully performed. The promoters of this pattern erroneously believe that good teaching consists of some fixed pattern of acts. Once these are mastered, one is a good teacher. With this ideal in mind the

teacher educator aims to achieve his goal as expeditiously as possible through "how-to-do-it" courses, practice teaching, and internships. The master teacher passes his know-how along to the apprentice teacher. He abhors theory—everything must be practical, tangible, and immediately experienced—and wastes no time in giving the student teacher at least one good way to teach.

Again it should be said that most institutions fail in achieving this goal. Many teacher educators within this pattern would rightfully insist that, important as it is, the act is not an end in itself, but the vehicle of knowledge, and a means of developing theory. Their goal is theory, but not theory approached from the mastery of logically organized subject matter.

THE EXPERIMENTALIST. The experimentalist is the antithesis of the artisan. To the experimentalist nothing is fixed, certain, or sacred. Each day provides the experimentalist with another opportunity to learn something new about teaching through a new appeal to experience. The experimentalist is never quite satisfied with things as they are: there is a constant striving for new insights and new and better ways of doing things. The attempts may be informal and incidental, or they may be formal and systematic in keeping with the conventions of science. Here, too, as in the case of the artisan teacher, notwithstanding the great emphasis placed upon this conception of teaching, in some institutions it has never made any great headway among teachers. No institution has succeeded in placing this stamp upon its product, except possibly a few at the doctoral level.

THE SCHOLAR TEACHER. The scholar teacher must like books just as the adjusted teacher is presumed to like people. He is subject-matter oriented. He is an avid reader, and never makes any important decision without first reading what others have said about the subject. When he needs help, he turns to books rather than to people. He is a critical reader, notes many differences among educational theories, and discusses their logical consistencies and inconsistencies and agreement with fact.

This type of teacher may be steeped in theory and the foundations of education rather than in application. He likely has an area of specialization and pursues it energetically and persistently. He is a student of what he teaches, if not of how he teaches.

Here again, this is a well known pattern that may distinguish some staff members in some institutions of higher learning, but it is not immediately discernible in the product. There are many fine, devoted, and highly skilled elementary- and secondary-school teachers, but few of them could be called scholars. Some people believe more emphasis should be placed upon scholarly teaching even in our elementary and secondary schools.

THE PROFESSIONAL TEACHER. Another product pattern, and the last to be considered here, is the professional-educator teacher, a product most earnestly hoped for and most diligently sought by some persons and institutions, but again not generally achieved. Where it is achieved, or approached, it is usually the product of many forces. First, a deep commitment, persistent interest, and intense effort on the part of persons who want to be teachers must exist. Second, the availability of teacher education programs that rise above the commonplace and ordinary, sense the need for both understanding and skill, and leave an abiding interest in teaching both as a science and as an art must be open to interested persons. And, third, interested persons (parents, supervisors, administrators, professors, and other teachers) who provide moral support and encouragement for those who wish to dedicate their lives to providing improved educational facilities for the young must be present. There are many contrary forces: (1) Many teachers, men and women alike, have no definite commitment to teaching, and use the profession merely as insurance or as a steppingstone to something better. (2) The conventions associated with employment suggest something temporary. Many teachers will not become bona fide members of the school communities in which they teach. They will not stay long. (3) Many teachers will be taken to be immature, timid, and imprac-

tical, and not important in the everyday political, social, and literary events of the community. (4) They will not count economically, most of them being without means and without experience in handling property, money, or business transactions.

Some people have questioned whether the professional educator concept is even a legitimate ambition for teachers. They place ministers, doctors, and lawyers in a special class. Some of the more frequently mentioned conditions that need to be met before teaching can be regarded as a profession are:

1. Teaching itself must be pitched at an intellectual level comparable to that of the other professions. Too much of the teaching today is performed at the technician level; only supervisors, administrators, and educational specialists make major decisions comparable to those of lawyers and doctors. Many teachers follow hand-me-down precepts. This will doubtless change as teachers are better trained.
2. The training and certification standards of teaching must be comparable to those of other professions. There are too many teachers with one or two years of training or less. Even the four-year college degree, which is coming to be the accepted minimum for teaching, leaves teachers *short of the training standards of the other professions*.
3. There must be more career teachers. More teachers must have a firm commitment to teaching as a lifetime occupation. Too many persons look upon teaching as a stepping-stone to something else or a type of insurance. There are large numbers of teachers who teach only briefly and then assume other responsibilities. One of the advantages seen by some for a break in the training program between the fourth and fifth year of training is to drain off those who have no permanent commitment to teaching. Those who pursue one or more years of graduate study after some teaching experience may have more serious intentions toward teaching than those who have a lesser investment.
4. More teachers must participate actively in an association of peers committed to the betterment of teaching conditions and of service to students and community. Many

teachers have failed to associate themselves with others to make teaching a better profession.

5. There must be a self-imposed code of ethics. The code must be substantial and means for enforcing it effectively must exist. This self-disciplining aspect of the professions is too often overlooked.
6. There must be self-imposed standards of competence. Other agencies in a socialized service may assume this responsibility but teachers must not shirk their responsibility for the development of standards of competence and creating machinery for their enforcement. Teachers may, if they so desire, say who is competent to teach.

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CHAPTER 7

Recruitment, Selection, and Admission of Prospective Teachers

Different kinds of institutions maintain variations in policies for the recruitment, selection, and admission of prospective teachers. Existing practices and studies of these aspects of teacher education programs indicate that many types of interests prevail among institutional faculties. Policies for recruitment, selection, and admission of students to programs of preparation for teaching reflect concern for such matters as: the teacher shortage, standards for teacher certification, the quality of candidates and the relationship between number and quality of teachers and job opportunities, professional standards, and the welfare of members of the teaching profession. It must be admitted, also, that some institutions are more sensitive to filling college enrollment quotas or to building even larger institutions. All of these concerns must be taken into consideration in planning for the future of teacher education; all must be recognized when appraising the impact of recruitment, selection, and admission policies on the quality of teacher education generally.

Two sets of facts, one relating to the appraisal of the existing supply of and demand for teachers, and the other pertaining to admission practices in teacher education institutions, are presented in this chapter to provide a perspective of the existing situation. The future trends are suggested by some examples of what institutions are doing about this situation and some of the problems attending recruitment, selection, and admission practices.

THE SUPPLY AND DEMAND SITUATION

While supply and demand for teachers shifts somewhat from field to field, and in over-all numbers from year to year, the figures for 1957 illustrate the general situation that has prevailed in recent years.¹

After five years of steady decline in the supply of newly qualified candidates for teaching in elementary and secondary schools, a low point was reached in 1954. The number has steadily increased through 1955, 1956, and 1957, with the 1957 figures showing approximately a 10 per cent increase over those for 1956.

The Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards of the National Education Association, which studies carefully the trends in teacher supply and demand, has identified a number of reasons for believing that conditions will continue to improve.

1. Local, state, and nationwide efforts have been organized to acquaint the public with the facts.
2. Interest in post-high-school education is increasing.
3. The low birth rates of the 1930's seem to be behind us.
4. The concept of an adequately prepared teacher is being steadily clarified.
5. Programs of teacher education are being strengthened.

¹ A brief summary of the 1957 Teacher Supply and Demand Report. Report of the Tenth Annual National Teachers Supply and Demand Study, reprinted from the *Journal of Teacher Education*, March 1957, prepared by NEA Research Division for the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, National Education Association of the United States, Washington, D. C., 1957.

6. Liberal arts graduates who did not prepare to teach find facilities to meet their needs.
7. Sharing of costs by the federal government seems more likely to occur than in the past.
8. Teacher salaries have increased.
9. The tax base for the support of public education has been broadened in some states and there is more federal awareness of the problem.
10. The high annual professional mortality in teaching has been somewhat reduced.
11. Recruitment practices with reference to superior students have improved.
12. Improvement in the quality of those who seek to be educated for teaching has been brought about by the improvement of the selection of trainees.
13. There is more and better post-graduate recruitment.
14. Better counseling has brought a better distribution of the new supply to points of greatest need.
15. The accreditation of colleges is raising standards of preparation.

These generalizations provide orientation to the supply and demand situation. Such facts and assumptions relate directly to policies and practices of selection and admission described below. Together these two brief summaries provide a background for consideration of the more important problems attending the selection, recruitment, and admission of persons to be trained as teachers.

SELECTION AND ADMISSION POLICIES AND PRACTICES

A recent and comprehensive study of admission and retention practices has been made by Stout.² She sent questionnaires to 865 institutions that appeared to meet criteria set up for defining teacher education institutions. Seven hundred and eighty-five completed questionnaires, or about 91 per cent of those sent out were returned. The objective was to ascertain what colleges preparing teachers believed

²Ruth A. Stout, "Selective Admissions and Retention Practices in Teacher Education," *The Journal of Teacher Education*, 8 (September and December, 1957), pp. 299-317 and 422-32.

should be done, which practices were in use, and the outcomes of these.

Considerable doubt and difference of opinion were reported by respondents concerning admission practices. About one-third feared that a plan to select students on a qualitative basis would produce fewer teachers, one-third thought that it would discourage those uncertain about teaching as a professional career (regardless of quality), and 12 per cent supported the belief that restrictive admissions would not produce better teachers.

A little more than two-fifths of the institutions replying to the questionnaire followed the practice of distributing literature on teaching, and a slightly larger proportion made some contact with prospective teachers while they were seniors in high school. One-third provided announcements, either printed or mimeographed, beyond catalogue statements; one-eighth issued handbooks setting forth qualifications for teaching curricular offerings, etc. Slightly more than two-fifths provided a special orientation course for those who plan to teach.

About one-half of the institutions replying stated that admission to the institution automatically admitted the student to the teacher education program. Interviews with the student by one or more faculty members, administrative officials, or a committee were required for admission in almost one-third of the institutions. Some provided individual remedial work, counseling, or testing programs for prospective teachers, but most did not. About one-half of the institutions used supply-demand data in an effort to relate the student's interests and abilities to employment opportunities.

The scholastic standards for admission compared favorably with those to other undergraduate pre-professional curricula and the liberal arts program. Only six-tenths of 1 per cent reported lower standards; 14 per cent required higher academic standards. Three-fourths of the replying institutions reported the use of objective tests and inventories as a part of admission policies, while 45 per cent of the institutions reported that they consider personal social-ethical fit-

ness more frequently than any other single factor. An institution, it appears from this study, would be most likely to be selective in its admission practices if it were a large municipal or state institution with a program devoted primarily to the preparation of elementary-school teachers. Institutions in the Western Association reported the greatest emphasis on selectivity. The most selective colleges and universities were found to be better producers of teachers in terms of both graduation and placement.

The author drew the following conclusions:

1. No one pattern is necessarily the best for all selective programs.
2. A basic element in an effective selection program, however, may be the repeated evaluation and development of the candidate's emotional stability and skill in communication.
3. If programs are to be positively oriented, with a goal of increasing both quality and quantity of production, early identification and periodic evaluation of potential teacher candidates are essential.
4. There should be more use of long-time longitudinal studies whereby a program of selection and preparation is evaluated by the performance of its graduates.
5. A selective program may improve not only the quality of its products but also its quantity.

Among the suggested next steps and the percentage of institutions endorsing each were: use of evidence in addition to grades and rank in class (61.8 per cent); provision for better vocational guidance and counseling (59.4 per cent); extension of recruitment and orientation programs (57.4 per cent); establishment of specific criteria for periodic review of student progress (52.1 per cent); and use of more objective measures of personality (38.6 per cent).

THE DEFINITION AND PREDICTION OF TEACHER EFFICIENCY

With the facts and considerations given above in mind, let us now turn to some of the underlying problems associ-

ated with selection, recruitment, and admission practices. Foundational to all decisions about this area is the definition of teaching and its predictors. If one is to recruit, select, and admit with reasonable efficiency, one must have a fairly accurate idea of the kinds of persons desired for teaching. The bases for recruitment, selection, and admission should be more than personal opinion. They should be validated. Tradition, personal preferences, and private criteria, however well supported by practice, are not enough. When one attempts to interest different sorts of persons in teaching or to set up admission policies, one is making judgments and predictions. He says in effect that the characteristics considered are attributes of good teachers or prerequisites to teaching success. Certain admission and selection practices, such as grade-point average, have come to have wide acceptance. There is little doubt that this should be one of the prerequisites, but it is probably not the only one, or possibly not even the most important. We need to consider not only the characteristics of the good teacher, but also our method of assessing abilities and competencies. In many areas, they are very inadequate. With this in mind, some of the attempts to define teaching and its prerequisites are examined below. These considerations are basic to all programs of recruitment, selection, and admission.

APPROACHES TO THE DEFINITION OF TEACHING AND ITS PREREQUISITES. It is generally assumed that everyone knows what teaching is. This is perhaps so in a layman's sense of the term, but by no means true if its technical meaning is considered. Teaching involves a variety of assignments, each calling for different interests, capacities, and competencies. Some would categorize teaching in a number of ways and then define it, while others would look for the basic essence of teaching whatever its nature. Possibly each approach has advantages.

From the various possible ways of characterizing the end product, those responsible for the recruitment, selection, and admission of persons to the training program must

choose the most promising. Domas and Tiedeman report more than a thousand titles pertaining to the measurement and prediction of teacher efficiency. Barr in summarizing some 150 research studies lists the following characteristics of good teachers as found in the literature:³

Aspects of Teachers or Teaching Studied

1. Personal qualities

1. Teaching aptitude

2. Resourcefulness

Originality, creativeness, initiative, versatility, imagination, adventurousness, progressiveness

3. Intelligence

Foresight, judgment, intellectual acuity, insight, understanding, mental ability, intellectual capacity, common sense

4. Emotional stability

Poise, self-control, steadfastness, sobriety, reserve, dignity, non-neuroticism, emotional maturity, adjustment, constancy, loyalty, easy-goingness, realism in facing life, unexcitable, integrated character

5. Considerateness

Appreciativeness, kindness, friendliness, courtesy, sympathy, tact, good natured, helpfulness, patience, politeness, thoughtfulness, tolerance

6. Buoyancy

Optimism, enthusiasm, cheerfulness, gregariousness, fluency, talkativeness, sense of humor, pleasantness, carefreeness, vivaciousness, alertness, animation, idealism, articulateness, expressiveness, wit

7. Objectivity

Fairness, impartiality, open-mindedness, freedom from prejudice, sense of evidence

³ Main summary table, pp. 202-83, in A. S. Barr, "The Measurement and Prediction of Teaching Efficiency: A Summary of Investigations," *Journal of Experimental Education*, 16 (June 1948), pp. 202-83.

8. Drive
Physical vigor, energy, perseverance, ambition, industry, endurance, motivation, purpose, speed, zealousness, quickness
9. Dominance
Self-confidence, forcefulness, decisiveness, courage, independence, insensitiveness to social approval, self-sufficiency, determination, thick-skinnedness, self-reliance, assertiveness
10. Attractiveness
Dress, physique, freedom from physical defects, personal magnetism, neatness, cleanliness, posture, personal charm, appearance
11. Refinement
Good taste, modesty, morality, conventionality, culture, well-readness, fluency
12. Cooperativeness
Friendliness, easy-goingness, geniality, generousness, adaptability, flexibility, responsiveness, trustfulness, warm-heartedness, unselfishness, charity
13. Reliability
Accuracy, dependability, honesty, punctuality, responsibility, conscientiousness, painstakingness, trustworthiness, consistency, sincerity
14. Personality, general
- II. Competencies (abilities to do)
 1. As a director of learning, skills in
 - A. Identifying pupil needs
 - B. Setting and defining goals
 - C. Creating favorable mind sets (motivation)
 - D. Choosing learning experiences
 - E. Following the learning process
 - a. Providing for individual differences
 - b. Making activities meaningful
 - c. Locating and overcoming difficulties
 - d. Organizing experiences into meaningful wholes
 - e. Supervising study
 - f. Directing discussion
 - F. Using learning aids
 - G. Teacher-pupil relations

- H. Appraising pupil growth and achievement
- I. Management
- J. Instruction (general)
- 2. As counselor and friend of pupils
- 3. As member of a profession
- 4. As member of a community
- III. Effects of teacher leadership (results)
- IV. Behavior controls
 - 1. Knowledges
 - A. Of the subject matter taught or activity directed
 - B. Of child behavior and development
 - C. Of professional practices and techniques
 - D. General cultural background
 - E. Scholarship, grade-point average
 - 2. Generalized skills
 - A. Problem solving
 - B. Work habits
 - C. Human relationships
 - D. Use of language
 - a. Speech
 - b. Reading
 - c. English usage
 - 3. Interests, attitudes, and ideals
 - A. In pupils
 - B. In subject or activity
 - C. In teaching and school work
 - D. In community
 - E. Social attitudes
 - F. Professional attitudes
 - G. Efforts toward self-improvement
 - H. Interests (general)
 - I. Interest in extracurricular activities
 - 4. Health
 - 5. Morale
- V. Status facts
 - 1. Age
 - 2. Height
 - 3. Weight
 - 4. Training
 - 5. Experience
 - 6. Sex

7. Salary
8. Recommendations
9. Photographs
10. Socio-economic status
11. Tenure (in present position)
12. Applications

A number of summaries of the qualities that should characterize the good teacher can be found in the literature. The Barr classification has been chosen for illustration for several reasons. First, it represents a serious attempt to characterize the product based upon systematic investigation and research. Second, it contains within itself many of the problems that plague the educator who would define teaching with some care. Third, it presents lists of qualities, behaviors, and mental prerequisites already referred to above, and in terms of which different investigators have attempted to describe teachers. Also, fourth, it provides a fertile source of predictors of teacher efficiency that may with proper treatment become useful instruments of selection for those who would like to do more in this respect to improve the product.

As one examines the various aspects studied, it should be apparent that they are not ready for use in their present form without further definition and proper instrumentation. Many of the items represent professional competencies that will be sought in teacher education programs but would not be expected to be present prior to training except in a nebulous way. Some will, with appropriate treatment, become helpful in predicting teacher effectiveness and, accordingly, of interest to those developing materials that can be used in recruitment, selection, and programming.

Much effort has gone into the development of recruitment, selection, and admission policies with very substantial results for current policies and practice. It must be recognized, however, that, as with most institutional practices, further improvement is still possible. Obviously, as shown by the surveys of practice made by Stout, already referred to in this chapter, much variation exists in the practice of

recruitment, selection, and admission. While this must be so to meet varying conditions, it results in a great deal of unevenness among those preparing to teach in different institutions. With a better informed public, toward which progress is now being made, and better recruitment policies, more selection of those preparing for teaching could be accomplished. As greater selectivity becomes possible, the characteristics of the good teacher will need more study. In addition, improved instruments of selection will need to be developed. The whole program, from top to bottom, might profit from a critical re-examination of its components, the means developed for identifying prospective candidates, and administrative practice.

THE PERSONAL PREREQUISITES FOR TEACHING. Many people have thought that more could and should be done to identify the personal prerequisites for teaching. Admission policies with reference to personal qualities are not easy to administer. Difficult or not, many administrators feel that it is neither practical nor realistic to attempt to make these personal prerequisites a part of the admission program. Some even argue that personal fitness is not a responsibility of the teacher educating institution. The contention here, however, is made, difficult as the identification of the personal prerequisites to teaching may be, that more attention must be given to them and adequate instrumentation developed.

To make personal prerequisites a part of the admission machinery for programs of teacher education involves many complex operations. Out of the many problems that need solution are two that deserve emphasis here, namely: (1) the need for a *refined list of qualities acceptable to a number of institutions operating in some named geographical area*; and (2) development of reliable means of identifying the agreed upon personal prerequisites. Both of these tasks are exceedingly complex.

TESTS AND SCALES MUST BE DEvised. Before materials are ready for use in a program of recruitments, selection,

and admission of candidates to preparation for teaching, they must be treated in various ways. The objective is to obtain reliable information about prospective teachers for use by candidates, their parents, counselors, and other interested persons. Sometimes different persons, including the prospective teacher, may desire accurate information about the amount of each trait or quality possessed by different individuals. To assemble this sort of information tests and scales need to be constructed and validated. This is a skilled operation that must be carried out in accordance with the practices established by technical workers in this area.

Tests and scales can be used to identify such personal qualities as the candidate's general intelligence, academic aptitude, skill in verbal communication, understanding of and liking for children, and the like. The use of precise information about such attributes will elevate admission practices to programs of teacher education above the current credit-counting approach.

THE PREDICTION OF TEACHING EFFICIENCY. Another source of information valuable to those planning recruitment, selection, and admission programs will be found in the procedures and results of a variety of prediction studies. The predictors that have been studied most systematically include those related to the students' course work and activities in the pre-service undergraduate program, information about the progress and reactions of pupils taught in elementary and secondary schools, and characteristics of candidates at the time of entrance to teacher education programs.

An example of the prediction studies is the follow-up investigation of Wisconsin graduates made by Lins.⁴ He found generally low correlations between such predictive measures as high-school rank, measured intelligence, achievement, general culture and reading scores, college grade-point average, and interview ratings with later records of gain

⁴L. Joseph Lins, "The Prediction of Teaching Efficiency," *Journal of Experimental Education*, 13 (September, 1946), pp. 2-60

of pupils taught and both pupil and supervisory ratings of teaching success. A single highest correlation of 0.69 was found between high-school rank and pupil gain, but others were so low that little significance can be attached to them.

Barr and others have reviewed carefully the studies dealing with the predictive values of various personality measures.⁵ Stein and Hardy found a correlation of 0.56 between scores on the Minnesota Teaching Attitude Inventory and judged success.⁶ Kearney and Rocchio found that desire to become teachers operated to raise the mean scores on the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory.⁷ Gowan found a relationship between scores on the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory and success as counselors and teachers.⁸ Those with high "K" scores were well adjusted, responsible, controlled, possessed a sense of security, had well functioning egos, and were friendly—all qualities that promote success in teaching. Lanke⁹ studied the relationship between Cattell's source personality traits as measured by two forms of Cattell's IBPF test and measures of teacher efficiency. Use of the discriminant function for the IBPF test indicated that good and poor teachers, within broad limits, had characteristic response patterns, possibly several for the good and several for the poor. This finding was further supported by a factor analysis. It appeared that good teachers are more likely to be gregarious, adventurous, and frivolous, to have

⁵ A. S. Barr and Others, "The Measurement and Prediction of Teaching Efficiency," *Review of Educational Research*, 19 (June, 1919), pp. 185-99; 22 (June, 1932), pp. 169-71; 25 (June, 1935), pp. 261-69; 28 (June, 1938), pp. 256-64.

⁶ Harry L. Stein and James Hardy, "A Validation Study of the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory in Manitoba," *Journal of Educational Research*, 50 (January, 1937), pp. 521-58.

⁷ Nolan C. Kearney and Patrick D. Rocchio, "Using the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory in Counseling Prospective Teachers," *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, 34 (November, 1935), pp. 159-60.

⁸ John C. Gowan, "Relation of the 'K' scales of the MMPI to the Teaching Personality," *California Journal of Educational Research*, 6 (November, 1935), pp. 203-12.

⁹ Tom A. Lanke, "Personality and Teacher Success," *Journal of Experimental Education*, 20 (December, 1931), pp. 257-79.

abundant emotional responses, strong artistic or sentimental interests, to be interested in the opposite sex, and to be polished, fastidious, and poised. Poor teachers are likely to be shy, cautious, conscientious, lacking emotional response, and clumsy, easily pleased, and more attentive to people. Notwithstanding the very large amount of work in this area, however, much more research is needed before one can feel secure in the use of the many measures suggested for this purpose.

Some attention has been given to the element of temperament as a source of predictors of teacher efficiency. Swartz made a careful study of the clinical and statistical literature in this field and developed a series of nineteen tests of primary-sources personality traits based upon the work of Cattell.¹⁰

Of factors measured by nineteen tests of primary traits, only three showed statistical significance with more than one of his criteria. "Reaction time" was correlated with "professional grade-point average" to the extent of 0.50 and with "supervisory ratings" made at the end of the year by 0.53. "Logical assumptions" were found to have a correlation of 0.86 with "general grade-point average" and 0.37 with "professional grade-point average." The third trait, "tempo-form-color," had a correlation of 0.42 with "general grade-point average" and 0.43 with "professional grade-point average." Montros¹¹ in a followup study of the same subject found similarly low correlations for first- and second-year ratings by supervisors. There may be some worthwhile predictors in measures of temperament, but this subject will need much more investigation before such measures can find

¹⁰ Anthony Swartz, "A Study of the Discriminating Efficiency of Certain Tests of the Primary Source Personality Traits of Teachers," *Journal of Experimental Education*, 19 (Sept., 1950), pp. 63-93.

Raymond B. Cattell, *Description and Measurement in Personality* (New York: World Book Co., 1916).

¹¹ Harold Montros, "Temperament and Teaching Success," *Journal of Experimental Education*, 13 (Sept., 1951), pp. 73-97.

a place among the more reliable predictors of teacher efficiency.

The University of Wisconsin has followed, since 1930, a carefully formulated admission policy, which includes consideration of such items as physical and mental health, grade-point average, and speech proficiency. Stoelting studied the predictive efficiency of various sorts of data collected relative to entering students at this institution. The grade-point requirement has helped to identify high-quality students with a grade-point average equal to or above those of other colleges, when calculated on the basis of freshman and sophomore grades assigned by academic instructors teaching in both the school of education and the college of letters and science as well as other colleges.

Every student in the school of education must also take a speech test or complete course work in this field. This requirement has operated to produce teachers of a high speech proficiency, due partly to selection and training and to the discouragement given those with speech inadequacies.

The medical examination eliminates those with malignant and communicable diseases. Every student must also take the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory. Extreme cases revealed by this measure or spotted by faculty members are referred to a psychiatrist for further study. While other measures have been tried on an experimental basis, none appear to have much predictive efficiency. For the early predictors Stoelting studied, as correlated with a composite of supervisory ratings made at the end of the students' first year of full-time teaching, relationships varied from -0.55 to $+0.38$.

In studying the predictive efficiency of various early measures of potential teacher efficiency, the criterion of success becomes an important item of concern. It has not been easy to establish a satisfactory criterion even when great care has been exercised. The intercorrelations among some fairly typical composite criteria indicate something of the complexity of the problem of choosing and developing valid

and reliable predictors of teacher efficiency. Gotham¹² studied the intercorrelations between various composite measures of teaching efficiency including measures of pupil change, teacher ratings, personality ratings, personality tests, and other types of teachers tests.

Except for the intercorrelations between rating scales, where one may suspect considerable halo effect, the correlations are uniformly low, indicating that the composites measure different things.

Lins employed three criteria of teacher efficiency, singly and as composites. His results are not greatly different from those obtained by Gotham, although his correlations are possibly somewhat lower.¹³

Harold Anderson made a special study of the criteria employed in the measurement and prediction of teacher efficiency.¹⁴ One single intercorrelation among various criteria was 0.85. The general pattern, however, reflected little predictable relationship between predictors and teaching efficiency.

Hellfritsch attempted to get some idea of what was measured through the various devices by means of a factor analysis. In two such analyses he found the following primary characteristics:¹⁵

1. General knowledge and mental ability
2. Teacher rating factor
3. Personal, emotional, and social adjustment
4. Eulogizing attitude toward the teaching profession (interest)

¹² R. E. Gotham, "Personality and Teaching Efficiency," *Journal of Experimental Education*, 14 (December, 1915), p. 161.

¹³ L. Joseph Lins, "The Prediction of Teaching Efficiency," *Journal of Experimental Education*, 15 (September 1916), pp. 2-60.

¹⁴ Harold Anderson, "A Study of Criteria Commonly Employed in the Measurement and Prediction of Teaching Efficiency," *Journal of Experimental Education*, 25 (September, 1914), pp. 41-71.

¹⁵ A. G. Hellfritsch, "A Factor Analysis of Teacher Ability," *Journal of Experimental Education*, 14 (December, 1915), pp. 166-99.

Schmid, in a factor analysis of a new set of measures for a new group of teachers, obtained the following results:¹⁶

1. Common factors found among females
 - a. Problem set response
 - b. Professional maturity
 - c. Introversion
 - d. Social adjustment
2. Common factors found among males
 - a. Social and educational adjustment
 - b. *Personality*—psychological factor

There would appear to be considerable support in the foregoing data for the premise that the various approaches to the measurement of teacher efficiency measure different things.

While measures of pupil growth and achievement under ideal conditions would seem to constitute an ultimate criterion of teacher efficiency, it would appear that each employing official has his own private system of evaluation. Each has in mind some sort of ideal teacher that he thinks best suited to the particular school and community. A teacher may or may not get satisfactory pupil growth and achievement in terms of what is measured by the tests and other data-gathering devices employed in assessing pupil progress. Some people have thought that these supervisory ratings are probably the best measures of teacher efficiency. A careful study of the matter would seem to suggest that in many instances supervisory ratings are basically not efficiency ratings but comparability ratings.

Besides ratings by supervisors and administrators, pupil ratings are sometimes used. Pupils know the teacher better than anyone else, inasmuch as they are the consumers of teacher efforts. Pupil evaluations, all would agree, should be used with great care.

¹⁶ John Schmid, Jr. "A Factor Analysis of Teacher Abilities," *Journal of Experimental Education*, 18 (June, 1950), pp. 287-319.

One also finds certain teacher tests that seem to show up with fairly sizeable correlations with various criteria such as the measures of intelligence, knowledge of the subject taught, professional interests and understandings, general cultural background, and speech proficiency. Some would use these as criteria.

Possibly the profession is not ready to make any one approach to the criteria of teacher efficiency. For the time being substantial help may be found in some sort of multiple approach involving more than one type of data-gathering device, two or more observers, and data derived from a variety of situations at different times.

Reference has been made here to only a limited few of the many researches reported in the literature on the measurement and prediction of teacher efficiency. Domas and Tiedeman¹⁷ list over one thousand titles of researches dealing with this subject and published before 1950. Many more have been published since. Only a few of these many studies have been cited here. The ones included have been chosen merely for illustrative purposes to indicate what those interested in this subject have been doing about it.

While some people take a gloomy view of the predictability of teaching success, the answer does not lie in retreating to a "do-nothing" policy or the status quo. Many persons confuse some particular *approach*, such as teacher rating, with teacher *evaluation*. Many of the rating schemes now in use are inadequate and in some cases provide an unsatisfactory mixture of good and bad. But to say that one is opposed to teacher ratings as now practiced is not to say that one objects to teacher evaluation. Teachers are now evaluated, have always been evaluated, and so far as we can now see will always be evaluated. The problem is how to get better evaluation.

¹⁷ Lineon J. Domas and David V. Tiedeman, "Teacher Competence: An Annotated Bibliography," *Journal of Experimental Education*, 19 (December, 1950), pp. 101-218.

One way to get better teachers is to examine realistically current evaluation practice. Everyone will gain in the long run from careful research in this area. Teachers will gain a new sense of security from a feeling that they are evaluated in terms of worth rather than upon preconceived ideas, prejudice, and personal preference. Administrators have long been plagued by the inadequacy of the data upon which they must make important decisions about employment, promotions, and dismissals. Pupils and parents will profit by a better grade of instruction. The need is to get valid and reliable measurements of teacher efficiency and predictors that can be used in improved selection, recruitment, and admission policies.

There are several matters that impede effective research on the prediction of success in teaching. The first is the misuse of statistical tests of significance. Most of the studies found in the literature are not sampling studies; accordingly they are not amenable to the ordinary tests of statistical significance. The coefficient of correlation provides a single numerical summary of the relationship found. If the calculation is accurate, it provides a description of the relationships found for the tests used, the persons tested, and the conditions under which the investigation was carried out; and in this sense it may be taken at face value. A second source of difficulty is the belief that one or two measures of teacher efficiency will suffice. Teaching is a very complex, many-sided activity requiring many considerations. Single tests or approaches are seldom adequate. Many investigators report sizeable multiple "R's" when more than one instrument is employed.¹⁸

Third, some of the evaluation schemes attempt to build up too many categories of efficiency. Since we realize that it is easier to make valid judgments about individuals falling in

¹⁸ Rostker secured a multiple "R" of 0.61 for nine teacher tests and one rating scale (*Journal of Experimental Education*, 14 September 1945), p. 71. La Duke secured a multiple "R" of 0.80 for a combination of four teacher tests (*Journal of Experimental Education*, 14 September 1945), p. 99.

the extremes of a distribution than it is about the thickly populated middle grouping, it appears that two or three categories such as satisfactory, unsatisfactory, and superior would be more defensible and adequate. The cutting point of the extremes may be set at any percentage or desired probability depending upon the demands of the situation and the statistical model employed. Fourth, there are many selective factors operating to narrow the range of talent found among teachers. Selection starts as far back as the elementary school. Most persons who graduate from a good, standard college, notwithstanding the many inadequacies of higher education, have the knowledge of subject matter, intelligence, and academic aptitude to grow with experience and good supervision into good teachers. The adequacy of the academic preparation of teachers varies, of course, from institution to institution and community to community, but many are quite well prepared. Zero correlations between intelligence and teaching success do not mean, for example, that there is no relation between intelligence and teaching success, but rather that most of those who lack the academic aptitude to teach have been weeded out. Considerations such as these should be recognized when dealing with prediction.

RECRUITMENT AND SELECTION PRACTICES. The discussion in this chapter has centered primarily on background information, facts, and conditions. There have been many surveys of practice: for example, Stout's study, and the triennial summary of research relating to the measurement and prediction of teacher efficiency published in the *Review of Educational Research*. Similar summaries of research have appeared triennially relative to recruitment and selection practices. Much attention has been given to factors in the choice of teaching as a vocation, sources of guidance and information about teaching, and programs for the recruitment of teachers. With respect to selection, the discussion centers around numerous topics, but chiefly upon admission standards, the criteria ordinarily employed, and the admin-

istrative machinery set up for admitting students. These are all important matters to which increased attention will in time be given. The point emphasized has been, however, that until we can define teaching more accurately than we usually do and ascertain the forerunners of success and efficiency with more exactness than we do now, much time, money, and energy is wasted or at least not used as effectively as it might be in securing good material for teacher education.

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Part III

PRE-SERVICE PROGRAM
OF TEACHER EDUCATION

CHAPTER 8

General Education of Teachers

It has long been agreed that the teacher should be an outstanding example of a well-educated person, a competent citizen, and one whose personal and professional actions are guided by high moral and ethical principles. Only in recent years, however, have programs of teacher education been planned to include patterns of college course preparation designed specifically to achieve these objectives.

NATURE OF GENERAL EDUCATION

General education is a term that has come into use in recent years to identify that portion of schooling intended to prepare for intellectual endeavors, citizenship responsibility, personal adjustment, and the full enjoyment of life. It encompasses the traditional concept of liberal education, which in its broad interpretation has the same meaning to most people.

CONCEPT OF GENERAL EDUCATION. For some time we have recognized the need to require adequate preparation in subjects taught by secondary-school teachers; it is also understood that some professional preparation for both elementary- and secondary-school teachers is needed. In the early 1930's

the matter of general education of teachers began to share the focus of attention as a third important aspect of the program for the education of teachers.

It has been increasingly evident not only that teachers should have a good margin of education and scholarship in the subject they undertake to teach and in professional theory and practice, but also that teachers should, both for personal and professional reasons, have a rich background in general or liberal education. In other words, the teacher should be not only a specialist but also a person broadly educated in the various areas of contemporary knowledge and culture.

GENERAL EDUCATION AND LIBERAL EDUCATION. In discussions of its meaning, the term "general education" is almost synonymous with "liberal education." However, a number of students who have given careful consideration to the concepts of general and of liberal education believe that the phrase "general education" is broader and has a connotation that cannot properly be ascribed to "liberal education."

From earliest historical times, philosophers, e.g., Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle in Greece, have expressed a belief in liberal education. As conceived in earlier civilizations, liberal education meant an education aimed at freeing the mind, particularly the minds of the upper class of people enjoying a considerable amount of leisure time. In other words, the purpose of liberal education was to broaden and train the minds of the upper classes in order that they might enjoy the contemplation of general and abstract matters in all areas of thought, rather than to prepare persons to carry on the specific duties and responsibilities related to the production of goods and services for consumption. The latter type of activity was carried on by the slaves and the lower classes, for whom a general education was not deemed appropriate.

THE HUMANITIES AS GENERAL EDUCATION. To many the term "liberal education" has become almost synonymous with "the humanities." However, "the humanities" has a very restricted meaning, which confines the definition largely

to foreign languages, history, and literature. "The humanities," strictly defined, refer to the thought and knowledge which have to do with man, particularly his relationships with other men. As stated in the report of the Harvard Committee on the Objectives of a General Education in a Free Society, a distinction has developed between the humanities and the sciences, even when the sciences are considered in their relationship to man. "Plato and Cicero would have been very much surprised to hear that geometry, astronomy, and the sciences of nature in general are excluded from the humanities."¹

PERSONAL ENRICHMENT AS GENERAL EDUCATION. General education, even as liberal education, is primarily concerned with increasing the capacity for the individual to live an enriched life. One may be a pronounced success in special lines of activity without living a full and complete life. To live fully, a person must understand the world, indeed the universe, in which he lives. He must understand it in all its more important social and scientific aspects. He must have some idea of the fundamental principles and conditions of operation in the physical and the social sciences. He must also have interest in, and knowledge about, the current developments and problems in all the more important areas of life and culture. An individual so educated finds means to enrich his conscious life in all that he sees in nature and in the behavior of human beings, including himself. His day is filled with interesting reactions to all that impinges upon his senses. Such an individual experiences little boredom under any conditions, since he can constantly reflect and recall his knowledge for action or deliberation.

The broad background that comes from general education supplies its possessor with insight into all types of social change and social issues, and with insight into the significance of development in all fields of science.

¹ Harvard University, Committee on the Objectives of a General Education in a Free Society, *General Education in a Free Society* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1915), p. 62.

CULTURAL INDOCTRINATION AS GENERAL EDUCATION. An important purpose of education, particularly education carried on as a social enterprise, is to pass on from one generation to the next an inherited view of man and society. It is not a permanent or fixed view, but a stabilizing concept from which change and progress may be made.

Western societies, in particular, have been evolutionary in their development. Each generation has inherited the advances of past generations and has accepted and contributed to change that gives promise of improving the lot of man. In our society certain ideals and fundamental principles have served well through many generations. Education should pass on these ideals. They include the concept of the dignity and the worth of the individual human being, particularly as enhanced by the influence of Christ, and the ideas of individual human liberty that have been spread and strengthened by the revolutions as well as the evolution of the past two centuries in Western Europe and the Americas.

It is essential to transmit, through education, the concept and the ideals of democratic government and of free and cooperative enterprise. Education most surely should aim at passing on the idea of the opportunity for each individual to develop his full potentiality in his economic, political, and personal life. Certainly it should be concerned with other forms of freedom, such as the freedom to think as one wishes about any sort of problem and (with a few limitations necessary for the social welfare) to express one's ideas orally and in writing. Transmitting such a cultural heritage does not necessarily mean concentrating upon certain subjects or areas of knowledge. Indeed, it does not mean exclusive concentration upon book knowledge at all; for it must include also the fostering of ideals, attitudes, interests, social and intellectual skills, and actually certain types of social habits.

CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION AS GENERAL EDUCATION. The concept of liberal or general education that prevailed during the Middle Ages did not take into account a responsibility for education for citizenship. With the development

of democratic forms of government in which the electorate was made up of the mass of people, a new and increased importance became attached to general education, and different emphases were given it.

General education for citizenship, as we know it, aims at the development of a common knowledge, a common language, and a considerable number of common interests, common ideals, and common ways of behavior. In other words, general education for citizenship supplies a core of outcomes that are very desirable, if not absolutely necessary, for the continuance and improvement of the democratic way of life.

DEFINITIONS OF GENERAL EDUCATION. The foregoing paragraphs show clearly that there are wide differences in what is thought to constitute general education. The following definitions or statements have been made by individuals or committees which have given considerable thought to the theory and nature of general education.

The purpose of general education is to enable men and women to live rich and satisfying lives and to undertake the responsibilities of citizenship in a free society. Although general education seeks to discover and nurture individual talent, it emphasizes preparation for activities in which men engage in common as citizens, workers, and members of family and community groups.

Thus conceived, general education is not sharply distinguished from liberal education; the two differ mainly in degree, not in kind. General education undertakes to redefine liberal education in terms of life's problems as men face them, to give it human orientation and social direction, to invest it with content that is directly relevant to the demands of contemporary society. General education is liberal education with its matter and method shifted from its original aristocratic intent to the service of democracy. General education seeks to extend to all men the benefits of an education that liberates.²

For the purposes of this report, general education refers to those phases of nonspecialized, nonvocational education that should be the common possession, the common denominator, so to speak, of educated persons as individuals and as citizens in a free society. . . .³

²T. R. McConnell and Others, "General Education," *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, Walter S. Monroe, ed. (New York: Macmillan Co., 1950), p. 489.

³T. R. McConnell, ed., *A Design for General Education* (Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1944), p. 56.

[General education is] the part of education which is concerned with the common knowledge, skills and attitudes needed by each individual to be effective as a person, a member of a family, a worker and a citizen. . . .⁴

General education has been defined in terms of purposes and functions, in terms of the content of the subjects taught, and in terms of the types of growth in the individual. It is perfectly natural that most college professors should tend to think of general education first in terms of the subjects which would be employed to produce general education. It is but a short step from that concept to thinking of general education or liberal education as the subject matter itself. More recently, however, the tendency has been to think of general education in terms of its purposes and functions and in terms of the changes expected to result as the individual who has received a general education takes his place in society.

GENERAL EDUCATION VS. SPECIAL EDUCATION. Perhaps the most important characteristic of general education is found in its difference from special education. Special education is concerned primarily with developing the student along restricted lines. The purpose may be education for a particular vocation, or nonvocational, centering on a hobby or a leisure interest. General education, on the other hand, is usually considered to be education that prepares one for general areas of human thought and activity.

GENERAL EDUCATION IS COMPREHENSIVE. An effective general education prepares one for thought and action in the wide variety of life's areas. It prepares one for effective citizenship as a leader, or as a follower who selects leaders and reacts to the proposals made by leaders. It gives one better understanding and insight into the problems of home living. It helps one to attain a better understanding of himself and other individuals and of groups of individuals and their relationships.

⁴ B. Lamar Johnson, *General Education in Action* (Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1952), p. 20.

Effective general education enables one to better understand the laws of physics, chemistry, astronomy, geology, as well as the facts and developments in those fields. Likewise, it prepares one to understand and to appreciate the laws of plant and animal life; the physiological aspects of plants and animals, including man; and the forces, conditions, and things that affect the physical and the psychological aspects of life.

Effective general education prepares one to develop a comprehensive, functional philosophy of life—one's own and life in general, including the phenomena of social institutions and organizations, such as religion, government, commerce, and family. It makes important contributions to all types of vocational life—the skilled trades, office occupations, commerce, and the professions.

Effective general education does not neglect the esthetic and the emotional sides of life. It includes a thorough introduction to the fine arts and perhaps gives such proficiency in one art that one may participate not only as a consumer but also as a producer, though not necessarily for vocational purposes. Effective general education supplies one with interests and abilities that will insure enrichment of life from the continued reading of the better things in literature, current as well as classical. In short, it produces a rounded individual with a full understanding of himself and of his place in society and in the cosmos.

GENERAL EDUCATION SHOULD BE FUNCTIONAL EDUCATION. In recent years emphasis has been given the idea that general education should give promise of influencing life and that it must be so organized, and the learning experiences in it so structured, as to insure change in the overt behavior of individuals. As pointed out in the Harvard Report, *General Education in the Free Society*, general education must develop the abilities to (1) think effectively, (2) communicate thought, (3) make relevant judgments, and (4) discriminate among values. Education along these lines must not stop with abilities; it should also develop appropriate ideals and habits.

Outstanding thinkers have agreed that education must be functional. Thomas Henry Huxley said that "the great end of life is not knowledge, but action." And Alfred North Whitehead in his *Aims of Education* said, "Pedants sneer at an education which is useful. But if education is not useful, what is it? Is it talent, to be hidden away in a napkin? Of course, education should be useful, whatever your aim in life."⁵

In the *Design for General Education* the following statement, written by T. R. McConnell and others for the American Council on Education, appeared:

The committee's second step was to agree upon the broad areas that should be included in general education. These fundamental elements were expressed, not as fields of knowledge, but as the ways in which educated men might properly be expected to behave. The outcomes in other words are defined in terms of performance. General education, for example, should lead the student to improve and maintain his own health and take his share of responsibility for protecting the health of others; to do his part as an active and intelligent citizen in dealing with the interrelated social, economic and political problems of American life and in solving the problems of postwar international reconstruction; to choose a vocation that will make optimum use of his talents and enable him to make an appropriate contribution to the needs of society.⁶

A forceful statement was made by former President James B. Conant of Harvard University, who said that he would amend the Harvard Report on *General Education in a Free Society* "by stressing the type of behavior on which a free society depends rather than emphasizing the common knowledge and common values which influence the behavior of citizens."⁷

⁵ Alfred North Whitehead, *The Aims of Education and Other Essays* (New York: Macmillan Co., 1929), p. 14.

⁶ T. R. McConnell, ed. *A Design for General Education* (Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education 1913) p. 8.

⁷ National Society for the Study of Education, *General Education*, 31st Yearbook, Part I (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1952), p. 6.

Various individuals have made statements similar to that of French in his *Behavioral Goals of General Education*:

The most convincing evidence that increased social competence is being achieved is the kind and quality of behavior which youth are being encouraged to learn in school and which young adults who are graduates of high school exhibit in life situations. Behavior is the most reliable index we have both of self realization and of ability to live the responsible life of a citizen in a free society. A program of general education designed primarily to achieve any other kinds of outcomes, even though they may be indirectly related to behavioral willingness and competence, too often results in the acceptance of these means as ends in themselves and of assumed capacity to behave as a valid substitute for actual behavior. The evaluation of a program of general education in terms of anything but behavioral competence substitutes an indirect, and perhaps an unreliable and inappropriate, measure for one that is direct and pertinent.⁸

CONTENT OF GENERAL EDUCATION

BASIC PRINCIPLES FOR SELECTION. In thinking about the content of general education, one must first get in mind several important basic principles. One of these is that general education must be representatively comprehensive. It must cover all the important areas of culture and human knowledge and human problems.

Secondly, the content of an effective program of general education must be selected, organized, and taught with respect to its relationships with life. Therefore, it must consist not merely of abstractions and facts but provide understanding of their significance and relation to activities, physical or human, in the community, nation, and the world. Learning activities in the program of general education should bring out the implications of knowledge, social and otherwise, and these implications should demonstrate particular concern for current human problems.

GENERAL EDUCATION: MORE THAN SUBJECTS. Because of these principles, many authorities believe that the conven-

⁸ Will French and Associates, *Behavioral Goals of General Education in High School* (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1957), pp. 55-51.

tional or the traditional courses now offered in the academic fields are not well suited for the purposes of general education. They are taught too much from the point of view of "pure science," using an abstract approach.

It should be borne in mind that general education does not consist merely of the *subjects* that are taught, but that the subjects constitute means to an end—the goals of general education, as stated in terms of the changes to be brought about in the individual to affect his future thought and behavior. Furthermore, the content of subjects taught for the purposes of general education must be so selected and so organized as really to constitute functional general education. Survey courses of the type common in universities in the 1920's are not well adapted to the purposes of general education. The content of courses must be selected to present the materials most important for cultured and educated persons to know in the area under study. Particular consideration must be given to the significance and implications that the topics, items, and areas have for human living. The selection of content and the time allotments must afford to learners and instructors the opportunity to go into the implications and relations of the content to life and its problems.

The courses developed to provide the basic introduction to a subject field for students expecting to major in that field are not likely to make the greatest contribution to the purposes of general education. Content from more advanced courses must be included. The selection must be made by deciding what content in the field or fields included are likely to contribute significantly to functional general education.

Some educators have insisted that an effective general education program should be organized around various human problems. Indeed, some have gone so far as to express the belief that the program should be built around the recognizable needs or problems of the learner as the learner himself views them at present. Other educators, of course, with considerable justification have opposed this point of view because of the fact that many important problems of

contemporary life are not recognized by learners at the secondary-school or the collegiate level.

FIELDS OF GENERAL EDUCATION. As indicated in the foregoing discussion, the program of general education should definitely include materials from each of the following fields:

1. *The physical sciences and mathematics.* This area should certainly include some materials from chemistry, physics, geology, astronomy, and mathematics.
2. *The biological sciences.* This area should include materials from each of the fields of biology, botany, physiology, and bacteriology.
3. *History and the social sciences.* The history of various civilizations should be included, as well as economics, political science, anthropology, sociology, and perhaps what might be called "social geography" (a study of the peoples of various sections of the world). Always the emphasis should be upon human relations.
4. *The humanities.* General education should include learning in the fields of philosophy, psychology, literature, as well as oral and written expression in one's native language and probably in a second language.
5. *The fine arts.* This should include learning experiences in various types of art and in music and in creative writing.

METHODOLOGY. It should be emphasized that no discussion of the development of learning experiences for general education can safely concern itself only with the content. Of tremendous importance are the methods of instruction which, with the content studied, may influence the outcomes.

To train people to think effectively, communicate thought, make relevant judgments, and discriminate among values, attention must be given to the learning processes as well as to an appropriate content. There must be approaches to and methods of instruction that will facilitate to a maximum the development of these critical abilities. For example, methods of instruction should place emphasis, both in class and out, upon thinking effectively, drawing sound conclusions from premises, extracting truths and generaliz-

tions from particular cases, and making inferences in particular cases from general laws and principles. Opportunities for practice must be provided if these outcomes are to be achieved.

Furthermore, opportunities for practice must be provided and premiums must be put upon learning activities that will result in improving communication—a skill important in itself and closely related to thinking. This need requires appropriately directed activities in writing and in speaking. Opportunities to exercise these skills must be seized upon by the instructor to develop effectiveness in communication, emphasis being placed upon clarity, simplicity of structure, and precision of vocabulary.

ESSENTIAL BY-PRODUCTS. Likewise, opportunities for the development of abilities to make relevant judgments must be exploited. The habit of looking for, and skill in recognizing, the implications and applications of the course-of-study materials must be attained. More opportunity than is now provided in most college courses must be given to developing critical discrimination among values.

Opportunities must be exploited for developing ideals, interests, and attitudes—the obvious values of character. General education should provide for the development of such values as honesty, fair play, self-control, love of truth, respect for one's fellow men, the social good, and appreciation of beauty. For the development of these discriminatory values, not only should appropriate content be available, but also appropriate methods of instruction and methods of learning. Equally important, perhaps, is the inspiration that may come from a teacher who admirably demonstrates the possession of these values.

THE UNITY AND INTERRELATION OF SUBJECTS. In the Harvard Report on *General Education in a Free Society*, a strong plea is made for unity rather than separateness of courses of instruction. Content should be selected and organized to serve the purposes of general education, and the methods of teaching these courses should have the same aim. The proliferation of courses, the elective system, and the

concentration upon majors and minors have contributed greatly to the separateness, segmentation, and isolation of various aspects of human knowledge and culture.

To promote understanding of the content to be taught and use and application of general education, it is highly desirable to arrange the content selected from different subjects to be taught in a somewhat related organization. Moreover, this contributes to the solution of the problem of attempting to crowd so much into so little time. For example, a great deal of physical science might revolve around the core of physics, certain aspects of biology, and some aspects of chemistry, namely, biological chemistry.

In a great many universities, special courses in general education which cut across departmental fields and bring together in one course related materials centering on selected themes and problems have been organized and taught. For example, the general education program at Harvard College presents a course on Western Thought and Institutions—a topic which includes history, sociology, political science, and other materials in the social sciences.

Harvard and other institutions offer courses in physical science which include materials from various physical sciences and mathematics and are built around a core of physics. The course at Harvard considers basic chemical concepts, atomic theory, the periodic system, laws of chemical combination, and some material from celestial mechanics.² A similar course in biological science is built around man's place in nature, and material is drawn from the fields of zoology, botany, physiology, paleontology, geology, and bacteriology.

The course in humanities at Harvard College centers its attention on the study of literature and includes philology, history of language, history of literature, biography of authors, discussion of literary forms, criticism, prosody, and grammar. There are also general education courses in philosophy and in the fine arts; the latter are not closely re-

² *General Education in a Free Society* (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1915), p. 226.

lated to any other course. As yet, the development of anything like a generally acceptable version of integrated courses in general education is still in progress in most teacher-training institutions. The courses offered should be carefully examined by the persons responsible for planning a general education program for teachers, and those which are judged the best should be employed.

GENERAL EDUCATION FOR TEACHERS

COURSES IN CONVENTIONAL COLLEGES OF ARTS AND SCIENCE. Until recently, rather superficial thinking about general education led a great many, including some students of education, to assume, or to accept the assumption, that graduation from a liberal arts college guaranteed adequate general education for teachers. This was perhaps more true in the nineteenth century than today. Requirements for graduation from a liberal arts college almost always are determined by a majority vote of the college faculties and, as a result, may be influenced by persons with vested interests. Departments with a large number of votes may also exert an undue influence, especially if preliminary canvassing and indoctrination are carried on by vigorous protagonists of some subject fields or courses.

Also, as institutions of higher education became larger, broad subjects were divided into a number of smaller areas. As knowledge increased, courses were first enlarged and then split into two or more courses. The opportunities and temptations for greater specialization multiplied. This type of development led President Lotus D. Coffman of the University of Minnesota to make a statement at a general faculty meeting as follows: "Ladies and gentlemen, it has become almost impossible for a student at the University of Minnesota to get a good broad comprehensive education. The emphasis upon specialization has become so great that we offer no degree the requirements of which will insure the type of good general comprehensive education that formerly characterized this university."

Confused thinking about what constitutes general educa-

tion has led many faculties to include in their requirements for the bachelor's degree courses which are actually designed for specialization purposes. As a result of such developments a clearer recognition has come of the necessity for careful consideration and planning of general-education programs, especially those for teachers.

EDUCATION FOR UNDERSTANDING THE POLITICAL, ECONOMIC, AND MORAL PROBLEMS OF A DEMOCRATIC SOCIETY. The school is a social institution. It is supported by public funds obtained from taxation. The school has therefore a very strong debt to society and a responsibility for educating people who will promote the interests of society and conform to the ideals and patterns of society.

Teachers, particularly those in public schools, are the instruments and agents of the society they serve. In addition, since they belong to the small minority of adults who have completed college and are, as well, instructors of young people, teachers have an unusual responsibility for understanding the (1) economic structure and operation of business in our society; (2) political structure and the methods by which politicians and political groups operate in selecting individuals to occupy public office on a local, state, and national level; and (3) social-economic problems of employment, property rights and responsibilities, our physical, mental, and moral unfortunates, group and community approaches to the solving of various economic and social problems, such as social security and TVA, and the place of government in business and in maintaining economic and social welfare.

In these areas, interest and knowledge at the specialist's level are needed by the teachers of history and the social studies, but a careful orientation and a good background are obviously necessary for all teachers to function as educated individuals. There is need also for developing appropriate knowledge for improving the condition of the consumer. In days of inflation the consumer is likely to find that he is not adequately represented in national and local planning. Too often, he is the innocent, injured bystander when man-

agement and capital, on the one hand, and workers and labor unions, on the other, strive for legislation and conditions especially favorable to them.

EDUCATION FOR AN UNDERSTANDING OF OTHER PEOPLES AND OF INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS. Of greatly increased interest to all, especially to teachers and other educated persons, are the acute problems that have grown out of greatly changed international relations. The development of rapid transportation and communication has shrunk the world tremendously in recent decades. A trip abroad that required two or more weeks by fast ship in 1925 may be completed in hours in a modern jet airplane.

Furthermore, international instability, with all of its dangerous potentialities, has followed the decline of England, Germany, and France as great world powers. Two great but relatively young powers, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and the United States of America, now compete for world leadership. These two have diametrically opposed systems of economics, business, and government—the one being fanatically dedicated to communism and totalitarianism, and the other equally devoted to democracy, capitalism, and free enterprise. The fact of polar differences in business and government constitutes a grave danger in itself, particularly since Karl Marx maintained in *Das Kapital* that communism would never be safe as long as a powerful capitalistic country remained in existence. The latter would of necessity be dedicated to the task of destroying communism. In both countries the people's thinking is highly colored by a fear and distrust that promotes hate.

Another powerful factor in international affairs is the fact that throughout the world this has become the "Century of the Common Man." The "have-not" lower classes have learned not only that there are much better ways of life, but also that through revolution they can obtain improved conditions for themselves. Consequently, revolt and changes in government have taken place throughout the world. Dictatorships and monarchies have been overthrown, and the common men—nearly two billion of them in Asia, Southern Europe, South America, and Africa—are beginning to de-

and new forms of government, of business, of ownership of land, and a larger share in the goods that workers produce.

All teachers must know more about the people of other races, cultures, religions, and economic status so that they can be effective in teaching particular subjects and also so that they can be successful in their human relations when dealing with individuals in school and community. Teachers must also develop an appreciation of other peoples, of their aspirations, and of the conditions under which they live. Not only is such understanding important in international relations, but it also helps in solving the problem of providing equal educational opportunities for all individuals in our own country, regardless of race, religion, or economic status.

General education for teachers, even more than general education for others, should result in an increased sensitivity to the problems of international and interracial differences and, in addition, develop interests that will prompt teachers to continue their reading along those lines. General education for this purpose must not be confined to the study of the United States and Western Europe, but also consider the peoples of Asia (where approximately half of the population of the world resides) and Latin America, Africa, and Australia. It is in neglecting to study these peoples that general education, both in secondary school and in college, has been greatly deficient. With problems of human relationships as critical as they are in the world today, and as they will be in the future, the dangers of ineffective human relationships between peoples are extremely significant for Americans. Hence the urgency for the study of other races and other cultures, especially by prospective teachers.

ORIENTATION TO OUR SCIENTIFIC AND TECHNOLOGICAL WORLD. With dizzying rapidity, our world has become one of science and technology. The very survival of any nation now depends greatly upon knowledge of, and progress in, the related fields of science and technology. Breath-taking advances have been made, not only in nuclear fission, electronics, and other areas of the physical sciences, but also in

the biological sciences, particularly in knowledge about the human body and its care.

Today even an educated individual, if without appropriate general education, is almost certain to be bewildered in this scientific world. Indeed, one cannot intelligently read such popular magazines as *Time*, *Newsweek*, *Harper's*, and *Atlantic Monthly* without more knowledge and understanding of the sciences and technology than the great majority of college graduates have been receiving.

To understand interracial relations, the teacher must have a knowledge of the findings of biologists concerning the equal potentiality of the peoples of various races. Throughout the world, and particularly in the United States, the feeling is too general that nature favors some races or nationalities. Indeed, in the United States many persons still believe the myth that white people are born with materially superior general intelligence and capacity for education and training.

ACQUAINTANCE WITH THE FINE AND ESTHETIC ARTS. Still another important area which should be included in the general education of all, especially of teachers, is the field of esthetics and the fine arts. Every truly educated person should possess interest in, and an acquaintance with, most divisions of this broad area—music, art, literature, dramatics. While it is not essential that individuals be able to play, sing, draw, write creatively, or be producers, teachers should be able to enjoy music, art, and literature intelligently, and participate, at least to some extent, in community activities centering in these areas.

TEACHERS MUST BE WELL-EDUCATED PERSONS. In short, the most effective teacher at any level, from kindergarten through college, should be an educated person, a person with a dynamic, functioning education. He or she should be a person of culture, a person whose education has been sufficiently liberal to free the mind from excess specialism and from overconcern with the more sordid and materialistic aspects of life. The teacher should be well oriented in science, in human relationships, and in the creative and fine arts.

While persons in other professions can succeed without a broad education (even though the lack of it may seriously impair their enjoyment of life), the teacher cannot be most effective in his work without good general education. This dictum applies not only to actual classroom activities and to his life in the community but also to his effectiveness as a cooperating member of a teaching staff or in the smaller planning groups of the school.

SETTING AN EXAMPLE OF THE EDUCATED PERSON. For personal satisfaction and for professional effectiveness, the teacher needs to have a background of general education that will bring him the respect of the people in the community. The respect accorded the narrow specialist is limited. The teacher of a specific subject must be able to carry on an intelligent conversation about other fields of knowledge and culture if he is not to be doomed to limited prestige and recognition. In the minds of a majority of citizens, the feeling persists that secondary-school teachers are schoolmarm specialists in narrow fields and their knowledge and understanding of life and culture in general are limited. Furthermore, the teacher with broad general education who is able to carry on intelligent discussions in areas other than his special field has a definite advantage in the classroom. Parents who have met the teacher in a discussion situation will pass on to the children their opinion that the teacher is a well-informed individual; and in the classroom the teacher can enlarge the students' respect instead of losing it with an unwillingness to discuss questions or problems in other areas or, worse still, by attempting to answer questions or participate in a discussion in such a way as to indicate ignorance or misinformation.

PURPOSE OF GENERAL EDUCATION IN TEACHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS

The relative importance attached to each of three major purposes of general education in institutions engaged in preparing teachers is indicated by the data in Table 12. The figures in this table are based upon the replies to a

checklist by 74 member institutions of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education; these include schools of all sizes and from all sections of the country.¹⁰ It is clear that, at least in the institutions involved in this study, the major purpose of general education is conceived "to develop that common knowledge and those skills that should be the common possession of educated persons as individuals and as citizens in a free society."

TABLE 12
JUDGMENTS BY ADMINISTRATORS CONCERNING
PURPOSES OF GENERAL EDUCATION

Statement of Purpose	Per Cent of Administrators *	
	Reporting Programs as They Are	Reporting Programs as It Is Hoped They May in Time Become
A. General education is intended for the cultivation of the intellectual virtues. It may or may not in any obvious fashion adjust the student to his environment or fit him for the contemporary scene.	23.7	0.0
B. General education should be designed to develop that common knowledge and those skills that should be the common possession of educated persons as individuals and as citizens in a free society.	68.4	38.2
C. General education should be devoted to helping each individual develop all of his personal powers so that he may learn better to satisfy his own needs and share in caring for the needs of contemporary society.	5.3	58.8
D. Others	2.6	2.0

* Percentages in this and subsequent tables are computed on the basis of the number of institutions reporting on the section of the questionnaire corresponding to the table concerned.

¹⁰ Benjamin Leroy Simmons, "The General Education Content of Teacher Education" (Ed. D. thesis, University of Oregon, 1950).

LOCATION OF, AND COURSES MOST COMMONLY INCLUDED IN, GENERAL EDUCATION. In Simmons' study, replies from seventy-four members of the American Association of Colleges of Teacher Education indicate that the usual practice, reported by 62.1 per cent of the institutions involved, is to concentrate the general courses in the first two years (A and B combined in Table 13). Nevertheless, the substantial majority, 81 per cent, of the respondents indicated a preference for spreading general education throughout the four years.

TABLE 13

JUDGMENTS BY ADMINISTRATORS CONCERNING
LOCATION OF GENERAL-EDUCATION PROGRAMS

Time Period	Per Cent of Administrators	
	Reporting Programs as They are	Reporting Programs as it is Hoped They May Become
A. Concentrated in the first two college years, with professional courses reserved wholly for the last two years. . . .	33.5	3.2
B. Concentrated in the first two college years, with professional courses reserved largely for the last two years. . . .	48.6	16.1
C. Spread throughout all four college years, the same being true of professional courses.	37.8	80.6

The respondents in Simmons' study indicated that the courses most commonly required in general education programs were those shown in Tables 14 and 15. It is notable that only 27 per cent of the reporting institutions require a foreign language for secondary-school teachers, and only 21.9 per cent make this requirement for elementary-school teachers. A questionable practice is shown by the fact that philosophy is required (for either secondary- or elementary-school teachers) in such a small percentage of the institutions that Tables 14 and 15 include no entries for this subject.

TABLE 14

COURSES MOST FREQUENTLY REQUIRED FOR GENERAL-EDUCATION
PURPOSES IN THE FOUR-YEAR CURRICULA FOR THE PREPARATION
OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL TEACHERS

Name of Course	Institutions Requiring Each Course	
	Number	Per Cent
English composition	36	97.3
Survey of social studies	30	81.1
Physical science	29	75.4
Physical education	29	78.1
Literature	28	75.4
Biological science	26	70.3
Psychology	20	51.0
American history	18	48.6
Mathematics	13	35.2
American government	12	32.4
Health education	12	32.4
Speech	11	29.7
Foreign language	10	27.0
Fine arts	10	27.0
Sociology	6	16.2

TABLE 15

COURSES MOST FREQUENTLY REQUIRED FOR GENERAL-EDUCATION
PURPOSES IN THE FOUR-YEAR CURRICULA FOR THE PREPARATION
OF ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL TEACHERS

Name of Course	Institutions Requiring Each Course	
	Number	Per Cent
English composition	31	96.9
Biological science	29	90.1
Survey of social studies	27	81.1
Physical education	27	81.4
Literature	26	81.2
Physical science	23	71.9
Psychology	20	62.5
American history	16	50.0
Fine arts	12	37.5
Health education	11	31.2
American government	10	31.2
Speech	9	28.1
Mathematics	9	28.1
Sociology	8	25.0
Foreign language	7	21.9

The percentages of schools found by Simmons to accept certain objectives of general education are shown in Table 16. It is surprising that so many respondents indicated full acceptance of emotional and social adjustment and family marital adjustment as objectives of general education. Only small proportions of the respondents judged that the programs in their institutions were successful in achieving these objectives.

TABLE 16
ACCEPTANCE OF GIVEN OBJECTIVES
OF GENERAL EDUCATION BY ADMINISTRATORS

Objective	Per Cent of Administrators Indicating Acceptance of Objective by Institution		
	Accept Fully	Accept with Reservations	Do Not Accept
A. Health—individual and community	97.1	2.6	0.0
B. Communication—written and spoken	100.0	0.0	0.0
C. Adjustment—emotional and social	97.3	2.7	0.0
D. Adjustments—family and marital	91.9	8.1	0.0
E. Citizenship—national and international	97.3	2.7	0.0
F. Understanding—environ- mental and scientific	86.8	13.2	0.0
G. Literature—self-expression and appreciation	76.3	23.7	0.0
H. Art and music—self-expres- sion and appreciation	76.3	21.0	2.6
I. Thinking about life— meaning and value	96.9	0.0	3.0
J. Choice of vocation	91.1	2.9	2.9

Among conclusions derived by Simmons from his study, the following are relevant and significant:

1. In 63.4 per cent of the reporting institutions the chief concern of general education is with the common needs of students rather than with individual needs.
2. The great majority, 75.7 per cent of the general-education programs, are organized departmentally.

3. There is little difference between the general-education requirements for prospective elementary- and secondary-school teachers in those institutions that prepare both types.
4. The average amount of work in general education required of prospective elementary-school teachers is 46.9 semester hours, and the average amount required for secondary-school teachers is 44.6 semester hours.
5. In practically all institutions, the great majority of courses in general education are presented by a single instructor without active collaboration with any other instructor or resource person.

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CHAPTER 9

Subject Specialization

Knowledge of the subject matter to be taught is the paramount prerequisite for successful teaching. Sound and extensive scholarship in a field of specialization should be developed by all teachers—elementary as well as secondary. This principle has always been supported for those who teach in high school or college; only recently has it come to be endorsed for the instructor of younger students. Subject specialization provides the teacher command of the field of knowledge from which content is drawn for the curriculum of elementary and secondary schools. In addition, it promotes intensive scholarship, habits and commitments in intellectual endeavors, as well as respect for knowledge and the continuous search by which truth is validated. The importance of subject specialization, desirable standards of preparation, and existing conditions affecting the subject-matter preparation of teachers are topics considered in this chapter.

IMPORTANCE OF SUBJECT SPECIALIZATION

Historically, the preparation of teachers has emphasized specialization in the subjects in which instruction was to be given. Only within the present century, however, has recognition been given the importance of pushing the teacher's scholarship well beyond the level of the content to be taught.

Efforts to deepen the subject specialization of teachers have been the primary force in extending the length of the program of pre-service preparation. They have met with conflicts over the amount of specialization desired and the best plans for guaranteeing that teachers would be well prepared in their subject teaching fields.

THE EARLY TRANSITION PERIOD. In the early secondary schools of the American colonies, only a few subjects were taught. Those usually included were Latin, Greek, religion, astronomy, history, and English language and literature. Some instruction in science was added later. The variety of courses offered in colleges and universities was likewise small. Students had little opportunity to include in their college programs courses not taught at the secondary-school level.

The restricted emphasis in high-school and college curriculums persisted to a large extent throughout the nineteenth century. Because those who ultimately became teachers had specialized in college in each of the subjects common to the high-school program, practically all were considered qualified to teach in any subject field. Because secondary schools were small, many teachers did actually teach every subject offered. In theory and in practice during this period, it was taken for granted that the college graduate was prepared to teach any high-school subject. Teachers who taught in schools of sufficient size that their assignments permitted them to concentrate their work in one or two fields made the choice usually on the basis of personal interest in the subject rather than the amount or kind of specialization.

Elementary-school teachers, for the most part, received little or no college preparation. The better qualified had often studied only some of the subjects of the secondary-school level. The vast majority, however, had only elementary-school training themselves.

MORE RECENT DEVELOPMENTS. Throughout the latter part of the nineteenth and during the first half of the twentieth

eth centuries, the number of courses offered in secondary schools and in colleges and universities increased extensively; consequently, the opportunity for specialization became greater. The major and minor pattern developed to insure breadth of study as well as depth in one particular field. Along with it came the elective system, which permitted a selection from the wide range of courses available within major and minor requirements as well as in other fields. The latter was stimulated in its growth by the advocacy of President C. W. Elliot of Harvard University during the latter part of the nineteenth century.

At the same time that the number of courses offered was being increased, more secondary schools were being established throughout the United States. The college elective system along with the expanded high-school curriculum, including an emphasis on vocational education and such subjects as art and music, together with the trend to relate high-school curriculums to the unique demands of local communities, created a situation in which it was impossible for every college graduate to have studied all the subjects offered in high school. Most of the newly created high schools were small; few employed more than four or five teachers and some had only one or two. Of necessity, teachers in these small high schools were assigned to teach courses for which they had no subject specialization in college.

These conditions and trends, which lasted well into the twentieth century and in some communities still are to be found, tended to weaken the subject-matter specialization of many teachers. This was true in spite of the fact that more high-school teachers were graduating from college. The development of the junior high school with its emphasis on departmentalization and the addition of new subjects to the elementary-school program were additional influences which created shortages of teachers well prepared in subject fields.

Even after the introduction of the practice of certification, few specific requirements were imposed to guarantee that teachers would be well prepared in the fields to be

many science classes have been assigned to instructors with much less than the desirable minimum of preparation in the subject field. Vigorous protests by academic specialists and parents have resulted.

Because they must prepare teachers to teach in small high schools, at least for their first year or two of teaching, many teacher education institutions not only have permitted, but have encouraged and even required, prospective teachers to prepare for teaching in as many as three relatively discrete fields, such as English, history, and French. This preparation is usually acquired at the expense of adequate specialization in one or two related fields, breadth in general education, and in some cases, no doubt, desirable emphasis in the professional program. With the recent, on-going, and very desirable decrease in the number of small high schools, the trend away from this practice should be accelerated.

INTENSIVE SPECIALIZATION VS. BROAD SPECIALIZATION. Although not commonly recognized by college teachers of subject-matter fields, intensive specialization in many institutions has weakened the subject-matter preparation of teachers. Intensive specialization is attained usually at the expense of breadth of preparation. For example, a teacher who specializes heavily in political science or economics with very little preparation in history or sociology is poorly prepared to teach the social studies. It is also an observed fact that some teachers who have specialized intensively in one subject have difficulty adapting their instruction to the various grade levels or to less able students. They may become impatient with what is normal progress for students because their own interests are so much more advanced. This type of highly specialized teacher may find it difficult to "speak the language" of the typical adolescent.

Between 30 and 35 per cent of the students enrolled in science courses above the eighth grade are studying general science. Consequently, about a third of the assignments of science teachers is to classes in this field. General science includes materials from the following fields: physics, chem-

istry, botany, zoology, and geology. It is obvious that a teacher highly specialized in physics or chemistry, for example, without at least the equivalent of a year's work in college in each of the subdivisions of science, will be at a disadvantage in teaching general science. He is very likely to overemphasize his field of specialization and to neglect the others and/or to provide a poor quality of instruction, if not to present actual misinformation, in the subdivisions of science in which he is not well prepared.

THE MAJOR-MINOR PLAN. As a means of setting desirable norms of minimal requirements for the subject-matter preparation of teachers, the major-minor plan, being already at hand and therefore expedient, has been widely employed. This practice has certain serious limitations. In the first place, the credits earned in major and minor subjects may vary greatly among subject fields or from one institution to another in the same field. Dependence on such requirements to guarantee adequate subject specialization, therefore, is unsound.

Second, colleges and universities are organized differently with respect to departmental divisions. In some colleges, a major may be taken in sciences in general; in others, in physical sciences; yet in others, one must major in a single field—for example, chemistry or geology. And in still others one may major in no broader field than a subdivision of chemistry, as biochemistry. For these reasons, the terms "major" and "minor" have little significance as definitions of standard amounts of subject preparation.

Furthermore, the requirements for a major and a minor as set up by subject-matter departments may not include the particular courses offered by the department to be of most value to teachers. In many cases the requirements for a major have not been determined by considering which courses would give the best background for teaching high-school classes. Often professors who determine the major or minor subjects are not conversant with the content and emphasis of the high-school courses. Others may want to

"improve" the high-school curriculum in the direction of their particular interests and biases.

In addition, the requirements for the major or minor by a department are somewhat the result of a compromise of conflicting vested interests rather than systematic planning of the best possible program for teachers. Furthermore, programs of subject specialization that are limited to a major field as defined by one departmental faculty may not include key courses from related fields which would be of benefit as preparation for high-school teaching. Majors in English, for example, may not be permitted to take courses in linguistics, speech, or drama which would strengthen their competence for teaching high-school English.

It is quite clear that the subject-matter preparation of any teacher, particularly those intending to teach in junior or senior high schools, should go beyond that involved in the general-education program or the lower-division program in those institutions which have not yet adopted the plan of general-education courses. The subject-matter preparation should involve, in at least one field, a sufficient amount of advanced course work to develop ideals and habits of scholarship and acquaintanceship with the methods of research in that field and with some of the related academic disciplines.

The suggestion has frequently been made that, because the requirements for majors are so variable both in scope and in depth and thus do not guarantee any certain degree of subject-matter mastery, teachers should be required to take subject-matter examinations. In the minds of many, especially subject-matter specialists, this plan would at least measure, if not guarantee, relative competence in the subject-matter fields.

PROFESSIONALIZED SUBJECT MATTER. Throughout the present century and particularly in the 1920's and 1930's, there has been discussion of, and experimentation with, "professionalized subject-matter courses." A prominent advocate of professional subject-matter courses was Professor William Chandler Bagley, who for many years was head of the divi-

sion of teacher education at Teachers College, Columbia University. Advocates of professionalized preparation of teachers believe that wherever possible, subject-matter classes for teachers should enroll only students preparing to teach and that the materials of a course should be selected, organized, and taught in the way which will be of most use to the prospective teacher in teaching high-school courses in that field.

DESIRABLE STANDARDS OF SUBJECT SPECIALIZATION

Standards for subject-matter specialization by prospective teachers depend upon whether a four- or a five-year program exists. If it is a five-year program, the subject-matter specialization can run both deeper and broader than it can in the four-year patterns. Determination of desirable standards should be the prior concern of subject-matter professors, who should plan in cooperation with the department or school of education.

SECONDARY-SCHOOL TEACHERS. The desirable amount of subject-matter specialization varies somewhat with the high-school teaching fields. The requirements may also depend upon the previous secondary-school training, particularly in mathematics and foreign language.

The *minimum* amount of subject-matter specialization may well vary—from 16 to 18 semester hours of work in mathematics above three years of high-school preparation, to 36 to 40 hours in the natural sciences with at least 8 hours in each subject taught, say, physics, chemistry, and biology. If the field is physical sciences only, the subject-matter minimum may be somewhat less—28 to 30 semester hours, with a minimum of 10 or 12 semester hours for a high-school course in physics and a similar amount in chemistry.

Similar requirements, in the neighborhood of 28 to 30 semester hours, seem to be common for teaching music, physical education, home economics, or art as a major subject. For industrial education and business education the appropriate figure as judged by practice may be somewhat lower.

COMPREHENSIVE OR DISTRIBUTED MAJOR PLANS. Some institutions have worked out modifications of the usual major and minor system. The University of Colorado has a "distributed studies program," in which such fields as English, the physical sciences, and the social sciences are represented in the minimum requirements. There is also a program consisting of the physical sciences combined with mathematics.

Briefly, this program at the University of Colorado requires the student to devote fifty semester hours of course work in general education divided among such fields as the social sciences, humanities, "man in the physical world," and "man in the living world." A broad field distribution of an additional fifty semester hours includes work in fields approved for inclusion in this type of specialization. Twenty semester hours of education credits complete the total required for graduation.

The distributed studies program is especially recommended for prospective teachers in junior high schools. A similar plan involving greater spread is recommended for elementary-school teachers.

TEACHERS OF ENGLISH. At its 1957 meeting the National Council of Teachers of English passed a resolution calling on the regional accrediting associations to require a minimum of twenty-four semester hours in English as preparation for teachers of English in accredited high schools. It specifically requested that this requirement be in addition to courses in English teaching methods and freshman composition. The required courses, the Council urged, should follow a meaningful pattern that would include the scientific study of English language and advanced composition, as well as English and American literature. An accredited school was requested to have on its staff at least one teacher of English with a collegiate major in the field, and core teachers should be required to hold certificates to teach English if this subject is included.

TEACHERS OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES. From a study of the teaching majors and minors in 50 colleges and universities in

the United States, selected with a view to being representatives of the country, Moreland¹ reports the data shown in Tables 17 and 18.

TABLE 17

PROVISIONS FOR TEACHING MAJORS IN SOCIAL STUDIES
AND REQUIREMENTS IN SEMESTER HOURS*

Major	Number of Institutions	Semester Hours	
		Range	Median
Social studies	38	24-59	40
History	32	15-51	28
Geography	28	13-51	24
Economics	21	13-51	26
Sociology	24	13-51	24
Political science	23	13-51	23

* For consistency in reporting the data, credit hours reported by those institutions organized on a quarter system have been converted to semester hours by multiplying by two-thirds.

TABLE 18

DISTRIBUTION OF HOURS IN THE SOCIAL SCIENCES FOR A
GENERAL MAJOR IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Subject	Institutions		Semester Hours	
	Number	Per Cent	Range	Median
History	31	100.0	6-24	16
Political science	30	88.2	3-12	6
Economics	25	73.2	3-12	6
Sociology	24	70.6	3-12	6
Geography	21	61.8	3-12	3

Of the hours which comprise preparation in the major in the social studies, 16 hours are allotted to the study of history; 6 hours each to political science, economics, and sociology; and the work in geography is represented with 3

¹ Willis D. Moreland, "An Analysis of the Preparation of Secondary School Social Studies Teachers in Certain Selected Institutions" (Unpublished Doctor's Dissertation, University of Nebraska, 1956).

semester hours. Thus, approximately 42 per cent of the social studies major is normally given over to a study of history; political science, economics, and sociology each represents 16 per cent of the median requirement in the major, and a study of geography encompasses approximately 8 per cent.

The median preparation for an individual who wishes to minor in the social studies is 24 semester hours. The median preparation for a history minor is 18 semester hours, with 15 semester hours in each of the other subject areas. In one institution the requirements for the history minor exceed those of the credit hours demanded for a minor in the social studies. However, this is an exception to the generally accepted rule that requirements for the social studies majors and minors should exceed those for the preparation of majors and minors in the individual disciplines.

The pattern of providing for a social studies minor without work in the field of history is not generally found in the programs of the institutions in Moreland's study. Of the 21 institutions that make specific requirements for a social studies minor, 19 make definite provision for some work in history; 11 require study in sociology; ten institutions demand some work in political science; nine require hours in economics; and six require course work in geography. Thus, the emphasis upon history in the social studies minor closely parallels that of the emphasis in the major field.

Of the 24 semester hours comprising the social studies minor, 11 semester hours are required in history, 4 in political science, and 3 each in sociology, economics, and geography. The requirements in the field of history range from 6 to 18 credit hours. In sociology, political science, and economics, the requirements range from 3 to 7 hours.

TEACHERS OF MATHEMATICS. Brown and Mayor, two specialists in mathematics education, have presented the following statement of what they consider an adequate preparation of a mathematics teacher.²

² John A. Brown and John R. Mayor, "Preparation of the Junior High School Mathematics Teacher," *Journal of Teacher Education*, 9 (June, 1938), p. 147.

In view of current curriculum studies in mathematics, a well-prepared teacher of secondary school mathematics will need to have some competence in (1) analysis—trigonometry, plane and solid analytic geometry, and calculus; (2) foundations of mathematics—theory of sets, mathematical or symbolic logic, postulates for geometry, algebra and arithmetic, and the real and complex number systems; (3) modern algebra, matrices, theory of numbers, and theory of equations; (4) advanced geometry—projective geometry, non-Euclidean geometry and possibly topology; (5) statistics—emphasizing probability and statistical inference; and (6) application of mathematics—mechanics (statics and dynamics), theory of games, linear programming, and operations research.

TEACHERS OF OTHER SUBJECTS. Similar statements concerning other subjects have been made by individuals or official bodies of teachers. These, however, are not as specific or practical as the foregoing statements but in almost all instances state merely that the teacher of the subject concerned should have an undergraduate major in the teaching field. A specific recommendation is not made as to the number of hours that would constitute a suitable major, nor is a pattern offered of the number of hours or the number of courses in various subdivisions of the field.

REQUIREMENTS OF REGIONAL ACCREDITING ASSOCIATIONS. Only one of the regional accrediting associations specifically states the minimum amount of training that must be offered in the subject field in order to obtain approval. For some years the North Central Association has maintained such a requirement, as follows:³

Preparation in Teaching Areas.

(a) Adequate preparation in teaching fields and areas is defined as that which meets the legal requirements of the state in which the school is located and any special requirements set up by legally constituted educational authorities of the state, provided, however, that the minimum preparation is 15 semester hours at the college level in any one of the following areas: language arts, a foreign language, social studies, science, mathematics, business, health and physical education, music, art, home economics, agriculture, and indus-

³ "Proceedings of the Commission on Secondary Schools. V. Policies, Regulations, and Criteria for the Approval of Secondary Schools," *North Central Association Quarterly*, 33 (July, 1958), p. 132.

trial arts, and adequate preparation in each subject taught.⁴ In the case of a teacher who devotes a minor fraction of his time to the teaching of a particular subject, a reasonable deviation from the minimum preparation may be accepted when approved by the State Committee.

(b) In the case of unified courses which draw their subject matter from two or more teaching fields, the minimum preparation expected will be 20 semester hours on the college level, appropriately distributed among the teaching fields concerned.

(c) Each State Committee will submit to the Secretary of the Commission on Secondary Schools the requirements of the properly constituted educational authorities of the state pertaining to the preparation of teachers in subject fields and areas.

The Southern Association and the Northwest Association require that the minimum amount of subject-matter preparation in the various fields shall be the minimum required by the state department of education in the state in which the school is located. The other associations make no specific requirements at all but make a statement, as indeed do all accrediting associations, that an accredited school must have an adequate and competent staff. In the North Central Association a strong movement is under way to increase the general minimum of preparation to 18 semester hours in the field taught and 5 hours in the specific subject taught: 18 hours in science and 5 hours in physics for teachers instructing sections in physics.

STATUS OF SUBJECT-MATTER SPECIALIZATION

At the present time, there are no data indicating the degree of preparation of teachers in the high schools throughout the United States in any of the subject-matter fields. Studies of the subject-matter preparation of teachers have been made in some states, but the data are probably somewhat out of date since most of them were made before 1950. Since 1950, in certain fields at least, particularly in science

⁴ Deductions in mathematics or in any one foreign language may be allowed to the extent of two semester hours for each unit earned in high school, not to exceed a total deduction of six semester hours.

and its subdivisions and in mathematics, the average amount of preparation of teachers in the teaching subject has decreased, and the number of teachers with definitely inadequate preparation has increased materially.

CONDITIONS IN A TYPICAL STATE. Typical of the average state—a state in which the average subject-matter preparation is at neither extreme—is a study made by Professor Stephen Romine, Dean of the School of Education of the University of Colorado, 1956-57.⁵ This study includes an analysis of the subject-matter preparation of teachers in 106 Colorado high schools accredited by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Transcripts were checked for 2,380 assignments distributed as follows: agriculture, 36; art, 54; commercial, 224; English, 457; foreign language, 149; homemaking, 108; industrial arts, 126; mathematics, 296; music, 147; physical education, 193; science, 266; and social studies, 324. Relevant data from that study are given in Tables 19, 20, and 21, taken from Dean Stephen Romine's study.

TABLE 19

SUBJECT-FIELD PREPARATION OF TEACHERS IN TERMS OF MAJOR AND MINOR TEACHING ASSIGNMENT

Semester Hours	Approximate Per Cent of Teachers		Total
	Major Assignment *	Minor Assignment †	
Less than 15	6	15	9
15—19	10	14	11
20—24	10	16	12
25—29	8	7	8
30—34	10	7	9
35—39	8	6	7
40—44	8	6	7
45—49	9	5	7
50 or more	33	24	30
Median number of hours	40	27	35

* Major assignment consists of 3 or more classes in subject field.

† Minor assignment consists of 1 or 2 classes in subject field.

⁵Stephen A. Romine, *The Subject Field Preparation of the High School Teachers of Colorado* (Boulder, Colorado: Bureau of Educational Research, University of Colorado, 1957).

TABLE 20

SUBJECT-FIELD PREPARATION OF TEACHERS HAVING A MAJOR ASSIGNMENT IN VARIOUS FIELDS

(For fields in which data on 33 or more teachers were available)

Approximate Per Cent of Teachers Having Preparation * of:						
Subject Field	Less than 20 Sem. Hrs.	20-29 Sem. Hrs.	30-39 Sem. Hrs.	40-49 Sem. Hrs.	50 or more Sem. Hrs.	Median Semester Hours
Agriculture (33)	0	0	3	12	85	50+
Art (37)	13	13	11	19	43	54-91
Commercial (183)	13	22	23	14	27	35-39
English (339)	11	16	15	18	39	40-44
Foreign language (70) †	46	25	17	3	9	20-24
Homemaking (89) . . .	2	6	17	44	30	45-49
Industrial arts (92) ..	16	17	19	21	25	35-39
Mathematics (203)	38	24	25	7	6	20-24
Music (68)	7	6	9	13	65	50+
Physical education (106)	10	14	22	22	32	40-44
Science (149)	6	19	14	14	47	45-49
Social studies (168) .	13	18	15	18	35	40-44
Total (1537) ‡ .	16	18	18	17	33	35-39

* Preparation is in terms of the number of semester hours of college credit in a subject field.

† Refers to foreign language taught, not whole field of foreign languages generally.

‡ The total of 1537 does not actually represent that many teachers, for many of them teach in two fields and have been checked for each; a few teach in more than two fields.

WISCONSIN TEACHERS OF SCIENCE. After a study of the subject preparation of science teachers in Wisconsin, Pella reported the following findings: ⁶

Physics

1. The average high-school science instructor teaching physics has a broad background in science and some preparation in mathematics.

⁶ Milton O. Pella, "The Nature of the Academic Preparation in Science of Wisconsin High School Teachers of Physics, Chemistry, Biology, and General Science," *Science Education*, 42 (March, 1958), pp. 106-37.

TABLE 21

SUBJECT-FIELD PREPARATION OF TEACHERS HAVING A MINOR
ASSIGNMENT IN VARIOUS FIELDS

(For fields in which data on 34 or more teachers were available)

Subject Field	Approximate Per Cent of Teachers Having Preparation * of:						Median Semester Hours
	Less than 20 Sem. Hrs.	20-29 Sem. Hrs.	30-39 Sem. Hrs.	40-49 Sem. Hrs.	50 or more Sem. Hrs.		
Commercial (41) . . .	39	27	2	7	24		20-24
English (118) . . .	31	27	17	11	14		20-24
Foreign language (79) †	47	24	14	11	4		20-24
Industrial arts (31) .	50	18	9	3	21		15-19
Mathematics (93)	61	27	8	3	1		15-19
Music (79) . . .	6	4	5	10	75		50+
Physical education (87) . . .	29	13	19	13	26		30-34
Science (117)	14	38	16	11	21		25-29
Social studies (516) .	13	25	16	14	33		35-39
Total (843) ‡ . . .	29	23	13	11	24		25-29

* Preparation is in terms of the number of semester hours of college credit in a subject field.

† Refers to foreign language taught, not whole field of foreign languages generally.

‡ The total of 843 does not actually represent that many teachers, for many of them teach in two fields and have been checked for each; a few teach in more than two fields.

2. The teacher of physics has had an average of 13.5 semester credits in college physics.
3. The full-time science teacher of physics has had more extensive academic preparation in science than has the part-time science teacher of physics.
4. The part-time science teacher of physics has slightly better academic preparation in mathematics than the full-time science teacher of physics.
5. Schools with more than 300 pupils enrolled generally have teachers who are slightly better prepared academically in physics and in the broad area of science than schools with fewer than 300 pupils.
6. It seems that the average teacher of physics has spent credit time equivalent to about one-half of the time re-

quired for a baccalaureate degree studying science and mathematics (part-time, 54.9 credits; full-time, 60.2 credits).

Biology

1. The average high-school science teacher of biology has a broad background in science and, in 65 per cent of the cases, some preparation in mathematics.
2. The average teacher of biology has earned approximately 20.5 semester credits in college biology.
3. The full-time science teacher of biology has more extensive academic preparation in science than does the part-time science teacher teaching biology.
4. There seems to be only a slight relationship between school size and the academic preparation of the teacher of biology.
5. It seems that the average teacher of biology has spent time equivalent to 48 semester hours in studying science and mathematics. The part-time teacher has spent time equivalent to 44.3 semester hours and the full-time teacher has spent time equivalent to 55.5 semester hours in these areas.

Chemistry

1. The average high-school science teacher of chemistry has broad preparation in science and some preparation in mathematics.
2. The average teacher of chemistry has an average of 18.5 credits of chemistry in his academic preparation.
3. The full-time science teacher of chemistry has had more extensive preparation in science than has the part-time science teacher of chemistry.
4. The part-time science teacher of chemistry has slightly better academic preparation in mathematics than the full-time science teacher of chemistry.
5. *Schools with more than 200 pupils enrolled generally have teachers who are slightly better prepared academically in chemistry and in the broad area of science than schools with fewer than 200 enrolled pupils.*
6. It seems that the average teacher of chemistry has spent time equivalent to about one-half of the time required for a baccalaureate degree studying science and mathematics (part-time 52.8 credits; full-time 59.4 credits).

General Science

1. The average high-school science teacher of general science has a broad academic background in science and some preparation in mathematics.
2. The average teacher of general science has 38.5 credits in science.
3. The full-time science teacher of general science has more extensive academic preparation in science than the part-time science teacher of general science.
4. It seems that no one size school attracts the best prepared teacher of general science.
5. It seems that the teacher of general science has spent credit time equivalent to from three-eighths to five-twelfths of the time required to obtain a baccalaureate degree studying science and mathematics.

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CHAPTER 10

Professional Preparation

The pre-service professional program refers to that portion of the college program designed primarily to orient the prospective teacher to the function and processes of education, as well as develop skill for teaching. It can be identified, in part, in an institution of higher learning by the courses labeled "Education" which are offered for prospective teachers. The course work in the professional phase is almost always offered in departments of education by professors who have specialized in the various areas on which emphasis is placed. The professional requirements usually vary for elementary and secondary-school teaching, but certain courses, such as psychology of learning or school and society, are often common to both programs of preparation.

Controversy about teacher education has often centered on the professional phase. Questions have been raised about the functions it is expected to serve, its value to the prospective teacher, the amount of credit hours assigned to it, the nature of its emphasis, and its placement in the program. The professional program has been criticized also for superficiality of treatment, redundancy of content, over-emphasis upon theory, and for its failure to challenge the intellectual curiosity and professional interests of students.

The history of the development of the professional phase in programs of teacher education reflects perhaps some of the basic reasons for its lack of acceptance today. Through-

out the past half century, education courses have been instituted in state after state by legislative enactments demanding specific amounts and kinds of pedagogical study for certification. As a consequence, the professional requirements have come into existence without sufficient research and experimentation to validate their worth, content, or procedures; thus, general faculty endorsement has been substantially imposed by law. In addition, a wide diversity of patterns for the professional curriculum has existed not only between states, but also between institution and institution within the same state.

The conflict which surrounds the professional courses serves to stimulate the systematic examination of their purposes as derived from their historical origins, theoretical foundations and recent experimental projects. Emerging common patterns are becoming more clearly defined and subjected to the test of controlled evaluation. The strengths and weaknesses attributed to aspects of the professional program are being discussed openly by both professors of education and their colleagues in other schools and colleges as well as by members of the teaching profession and interested laymen. Perhaps most important of all in terms of the improvement of the professional phase of teacher education is the fact that issues and problems are being more accurately defined to permit their objective study.

PURPOSE AND NATURE OF THE PROFESSIONAL PROGRAM

Emphasis in the professional program ranges today from limited attempts to develop skill in teaching to broad efforts to influence attitudes and personality, to develop qualities of leadership, and to provide the background for scholarship in the foundation areas of education. Programs of the first type usually emphasize only such courses as educational psychology, methods, and practice teaching. The latter patterns include in various ways the traditional subjects of the history and philosophy of education and the psychology of learning as well as the study of such fields as human development, mental hygiene, school and society, and the or-

ganization and function of the different levels of school program. Depending on the institution, courses in guidance, audio-visual instruction, or school administration may be required in the sequence.

The major reasons for this range of emphasis vary from one institution to another. In small liberal arts colleges, for example, the nature of the institution tends to dictate the more restricted pattern. In teachers colleges, the numerical strength of professors of education has helped to expand the number of required courses included. Faculty strength in a given area, such as guidance, may lead to the inclusion of a course in a specific field. Perhaps the major force, however, is to be found in changes that have taken place in schools and in the function of teaching. Quite clearly, as the responsibilities assumed by elementary and secondary schools have multiplied and as the roles of teachers have become correspondingly more complex and demanding, the scope and emphasis of the professional program have expanded in institutions whose faculties are sensitive to such changes and are free to make adaptations in pedagogical requirements.

As early as 1888, S. S. Parr suggested that the professional program was related to the kind of teacher needed for the schools.¹ He proposed that in addition to personal fitness and knowledge of the subject to be taught the teacher should be prepared in the following areas:

1. Teaching knowledge—it is necessary for the teacher to learn to look at subjects in fixed order and also from the viewpoint of the child learning the material
2. Knowledge of the process of development
3. Understanding of method as the scientific application of means of stimulation to ends of development
4. Acquaintance with the historical development of pedagogical principles
5. Comprehension of the science of mental stimulation
6. Knowledge of the art of teaching as experience will give

¹ Walter S. Monro, *Teaching-Learning Theory and Teacher Education, 1890 to 1930* (Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois Press, 1932), p. 161.

Evenden identified a broadening of the emphasis in the professional program between 1926 and 1938 along two lines:

1. A growing emphasis was placed upon a well-rounded and well-integrated personality such as will assume the leadership of school and community.
2. An emerging concern developed for a systematic perspective of society and the society in which children live; a knowledge of the American democratic system and other forms of government and of political and economic stability was stressed.²

These trends were clearly in evidence in the statement of purposes of professional courses in education outlined in the National Survey of Teacher Training in 1933.³

1. Professional orientation—relationship of education to society and the possibilities open in educational service
2. Educational service courses—essential concepts and techniques used frequently in other courses and in educational literature
3. Understanding of children to be taught
4. Knowledge of the essential methods for teaching a grade or subject
5. Knowledge of the organization and management of class instruction in various types of schools
6. Acquisition of a satisfactory minimum of teaching skill through observation, participation, and practice teaching
7. Summarized and integrated "working philosophy" of education and an understanding of the individual's relationship to education and society

Stratemeyer, writing for the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, re-echoed Parr's earlier

² Edward S. Evenden, "What Is the Essential Nature of an Evolving Curriculum of a Teachers College," *17th Yearbook*, American Association of Teachers Colleges (1938), pp. 5-16.

³ Edward S. Evenden, "Summary and Interpretation," *National Survey of the Education of Teachers*, 6 (U. S. Office of Education, Bulletin, 1933, No. 10), pp. 173-74.

emphasis by stressing that the position taken in the debate over the professional sequence in teacher education is determined largely by a person's concept of the work of the teacher and of the way learning takes place.⁴

Her analysis of the function of what she calls, "the professional sequence" emphasized the changes brought about in the work of the teacher by universal education by the use of mass media of communication, and by the dynamic quality of education in a rapidly changing world where principle rather than pattern and creative thinking rather than prescriptive responses are required.

In a description of experimental efforts to redesign teacher education, sponsored by the Fund for the Advancement of Education, Woodring proposed that the professional phase of teacher education should consist of two distinct aspects:

1. Professional knowledge, as distinguished from professional skills
2. Skills in managing a classroom in working with children and young people and in supervising the learning process.⁵

Essentially, the professional program is the process of the professionalization of the teacher. Its two-fold purpose may be summarized as follows: (1) to help the prospective teacher gain essential knowledge about the processes of learning and education, the nature of learners at various stages of maturity, and the functions and organization of education in a democratic society; and (2) provide for the development of professional skills that permit the integration and translation of the total preparation for teaching—liberal education, scholarship in subject fields, and professional knowledge—into the successful practice of teaching at given levels and in specific subject fields.

⁴ Florence B. Stratemeyer, "The Professional Sequence in Teacher Education," in Donald P. Cottrell (ed.), *Teacher Education for a Free People* (Oneonta, New York: The Am. Assoc. of Colleges for Teacher Educ., 1956), p. 115.

⁵ Paul Woodring, *New Directions in Teacher Education* (New York: The Fund for the Advancement of Education, 1957), p. 11.

EARLY PATTERNS

Early patterns for the professional program were developed in normal schools during the last half of the nineteenth century. Two distinct and competing types prevailed generally until around 1900. One placed almost complete emphasis upon pedagogical training for elementary-school teaching; the other required the student to concentrate almost entirely on the review of the elementary-school subjects. Neither could be called college level work.

By 1889, the Illinois State Normal School was offering a third type of pattern which was to serve as the forerunner for professional programs in four-year teachers colleges. It combined aspects of the emphasis on pedagogy and the review of elementary-school subjects. In addition, it introduced work of college standard to provide the teacher with a degree of liberal education, and it provided advanced work in certain academic subjects. Two, three, and four years of work were offered.

PEDAGOGICAL PATTERN. A typical program of the type which gave exclusive emphasis to pedagogical training was that of the St. Cloud Normal School in Minnesota near the end of the 1880's.⁶

- | | |
|---------------------|--|
| <i>First year:</i> | History of Education
Psychology
Methodology
School Economy (administration) |
| <i>Second year:</i> | Student teaching—extending over several months
Special methods for teaching various elementary school subjects, combined with a review of the content and skills to be taught |

⁶ Thomas J. Gray, "The Normal School Idea as Embodied in . . . Normal School at St. Cloud," in J. P. Gordy's *Rise and Growth of the Normal-School Idea in the United States* (Bureau of Education, Circular of Information on No. 8, 1891), pp. 90-97.

The pedagogical instruction of this period was little more than training in practical procedures for planning and managing instruction in rural elementary schools. Although Page's book on theory and practice of teaching⁷ had been published in 1851, it was not until the 1880's that two books were published, one by Hewett,⁸ the other by White,⁹ that represented the beginning of an attempt to develop a systematic pedagogy for American schools. Prior to these publications, courses in education depended heavily on textbooks by foreign authors¹⁰ and European ideas of education, such as the Herbartian formal teaching steps as transplanted by Horace Mann and others. Yet to come was G. Stanley Hall's psychology, Thorndike's contribution to learning theory and measurement, Binet's research on intelligence, Dewey's philosophical views, and Morrison's theory of teaching.

REVIEW OF ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL SUBJECTS. Competing with the pedagogical type of normal school were those that concentrated on drilling the prospective teacher in the subjects to be taught in the elementary school. The curriculum of such schools should not properly be called a professional program. It did, however, take cognizance of the fact that the student was learning the material in order to teach; consequently, some emphasis on method of instruction was included. This type of program was the basis for the move-

⁷ David P. Page, *Theory and Practice of Teaching or Motives and Methods of Good School-Keeping* (New York: Barnes & Co., 1851).

⁸ Edwin C. Hewett, *A Treatise on Pedagogy for Young Teachers* (Cincinnati, Ohio: Van Antwerp, Bragg & Company, 1884).

⁹ Emerson L. White, *The Elements of Pedagogy: Manual for Teachers, and All Persons Interested in School Education* (Cincinnati, Ohio: Van Antwerp, Bragg & Company, 1886).

¹⁰ J. K. F. Rosenkranz, *The Philosophy of Education*, Am. Ed. (St. Louis: Ray Baker & Co., 1872).

¹¹ T. T. Tate, *Principles and Practices of Teaching* (New York: E. L. Kellogg & Company, 1885).

Alexander Bain, *Education as a Science* (New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1879).

ment to professionalize subject matter, a movement which developed during the early part of the next century.

In general, subject-review programs provided for one or two years of concentrated study of such subjects as reading, writing, spelling, arithmetic, history, geography, drawing, music, and hygiene. In some programs practice teaching was included. Often teachers enrolled for the instruction in summer institutes or for a semester at a time. Such programs placed heavy stress upon the proficiency of students in the subject matter of the elementary school. Examinations were required and often certificates were given by subjects.

EMPHASIS IN EARLY PROFESSIONAL PROGRAMS. By the end of the 1890's the professional program in normal schools had developed three types of emphasis with one or more courses in education having been identified with each:

<i>Theoretical Emphasis:</i>	History of Education Science of Education Philosophy of Education Elements of Pedagogy
<i>Practical Emphasis:</i>	School Economy (administration) School Organization School Management
<i>Semi-Technical Emphasis:</i>	Student Teaching Methods of Teaching

After 1900, courses began to appear in college programs in such fields as experimental psychology, educational psychology, child study, and adolescent psychology. By 1915, courses in measurement, school law, school hygiene, and comparative education had been established.

The National Survey of the Education of Teachers identified the relative emphasis given to various pedagogical courses in normal schools and teachers colleges in the years 1905, 1914, and 1933 by tabulating the order of frequency in which various courses were required for prospective teachers. History of Education for example, as shown in

Table 22, was the most popular pedagogical course in 1905; by 1933 it was offered so infrequently that it was not tabulated. Educational psychology did not appear as a separate course until the tabulation for 1933. It will be noted that a trend toward fused courses had reduced the number and changed the titles of courses included in the 1933 listing.

TABLE 22

COURSES MOST FREQUENTLY GIVEN IN THE PROFESSIONAL SEQUENCE
IN NORMAL SCHOOLS AND TEACHERS COLLEGES *
(IN ORDER OF FREQUENCY)

1905	1911	1933
History of education	Practice teaching	Practice teaching
Psychology	History of education	Educational psychology
Practice teaching	Psychology	General psychology
Pedagogy	School management	Specialized courses in school administration and supervision
School management	Child study	
Methods and reviews	Principles of teaching	Principles of teaching or introduction to teaching
Child study	Educational psychology	
	General methods	

* Table compiled with Benjamin W. Frazier et al., *National Survey of the Education of Teachers*, Bulletin, No. 10, Vol. 5 (Special Survey Studies, 1933), p. 60

Beginning about 1915, a trend developed toward the professionalization of subject matter of the elementary-school curriculum. Its purpose was to help the prospective teacher consider the content of courses he would teach in terms of its importance to educational programs, its relationship to other or more advanced subject matter, its historical development, and its organization for purposes of instruction in the elementary school. As a consequence, education

courses under such titles as arithmetic for elementary schools, language arts for teachers, and children's literature began to appear in college programs.

The professional program for elementary-school teachers started initially with practice teaching and related methodology, and later expanded to encompass courses in history and principles of education, as well as the formal study of such courses as educational psychology and child development.

The growth of professional education for high-school teachers followed almost the opposite pattern. It tended to start with the academic study of history, philosophy, and psychology; there was little emphasis on practice teaching and methodology. This difference resulted from the fact that high-school teachers were prepared in universities and liberal arts colleges which were reluctant to add pedagogical courses of a practical or technical nature. The study of education—its history, philosophy, and principles—was more palatable in the academic environment of the liberal arts college. Courses of this type would be offered on a basis similar to those in academic fields and included in students' programs of study as electives, without disturbing the traditional liberal arts pattern. Substantially fewer semester hours of credit in education courses were required for high-school teachers than for those preparing to teach in elementary schools.

Two traditions, then, were represented in the earlier stages of the professional program; one, emphasizing practical, technical laboratory training for elementary-school teaching, developed in normal schools and teachers colleges; the other, favoring the academic and theoretical study of education, was provided for prospective high-school teachers in liberal arts colleges and universities.

RECENT DEVELOPMENTS

The professional program has undergone several specific changes in recent years. The number of education courses that are available from which to choose the required se-

quence has multiplied greatly. Efforts have been made to merge the elementary and secondary patterns as well as to standardize the entire curriculum in education. Fused courses have been designed, and greater emphasis has been placed upon laboratory experience.

MULTIPLICATION OF COURSES. With the introduction of the study of education into universities at the turn of the present century, scholars began to investigate in detail the various areas pertinent to teaching and school programs. Such research gave rise to the specialized subdivisions within the field of education and eventually to the multiplication of courses. As has been the case in other fields, when theory has been refined and knowledge verified about aspects of education, new courses are organized. They soon found their way into the required undergraduate professional sequence for prospective teachers. In fact, in one institution or another, education courses which have since been established at the graduate level, such as educational measurement, statistics, comparative education, experimental psychology, school law, and school administration, were at one time included in undergraduate requirements.

The growth in number of courses, combined with the lack of standardization, inevitably led to an overlapping of courses, which has been a source of so much recent criticism. The fact that education is essentially an applied field—drawing its content as it does from so many basic areas of knowledge to serve all types of educational personnel—has further contributed to duplication for many students.

MERGING OF ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY PATTERNS. A major development in recent years has been the merging of the two traditional patterns for the professional program: (1) practical emphasis for the elementary-school teacher, and (2) a more theoretical and academic approach provided for high-school teachers.

The length of the sequence for prospective elementary-school teachers has been reduced from as much as two full years of pedagogical work to as little as a semester and a

half, and it is rarely more than a full year. The number of separate courses in methods of teaching various subjects has been reduced, and elementary-school teachers are required to study fields such as adolescent psychology and the organization and function of the total school system. Although the emphasis in the professional program for elementary-school teachers is still on laboratory work with children, it is fair to say that it has tended to include more academic courses in pedagogy and theoretical study of education.

For prospective secondary-school teachers, the number of semester hours' credit allocated to the education courses has increased from an earlier range of 12 to 15 hours to a present typical pattern of about 20 semester hours. The tendency has been to assign the increase in credit hours to student teaching and related methods of teaching a subject field. In general, emphasis on the laboratory aspects of the professional program now represents from 50 to 60 per cent of the total 18 to 20 semester hours of education courses required for high-school teachers; this compares with from zero to perhaps 20 per cent of the total of 30 years ago.

It is common today to find some of the same professional courses required for both elementary- and secondary-school teachers. Some institutions have, in fact, developed a single pattern of pedagogical study which differentiates for the level and subject field of preparation only in the student teaching and methods phase of the program. An example of this type of merged pattern often includes the following courses:

Courses required of prospective elementary and secondary teachers:	{ Introduction to Teaching Human Development (including psychology of learning) School and Society
Courses differentiated in terms of level and subject field:	{ Methods of Teaching Practice Teaching

In such a pattern the difference in the amount of credit hours required for elementary- and secondary-school majors is due to the additional hours allocated to methods of teaching for prospective elementary-school teachers.

STANDARDIZATION OF THE PROFESSIONAL PROGRAM. Progress has been made toward the standardization of the professional program. In fact, although it is still common for colleges to claim unique patterns for the work in pedagogy, programs of required courses in education are becoming substantially alike across the nation.

Student teaching, methods of teaching, and educational psychology are fairly common components of the professional requirements. In addition, a course in school and society or one dealing with the organization and function of the school system, or both, is typically required. Some schools offer a course in human development separate from the one in psychology of learning. Only a few still require separate courses in philosophy of education or history of education.

FUSED COURSES. A major reason, no doubt, for the continuing lack of standardization of courses in education is the practice of some institutions which offer courses in education that correspond to various subdivisions of the field of education; others have developed fused courses which include a selection of content from various areas in education. In the latter, for example, material necessary for the beginning teacher to know may be assembled in one course from such areas as history of education, philosophy of education, the organization and function of the school, and educational sociology. "School and Society" is the title most commonly given to this kind of fused course. Likewise content from psychology, educational psychology, mental hygiene, biology, and physiology is often used to form the course, "Human Development."

The purpose of the fused course is to bring to the prospective teacher an introductory orientation to the knowledge that supports the professional practice of teaching. This must be accomplished within the limited amounts of time and credit hours allocated to the professional requirements in four-year college programs. Another objective is to reduce the proliferation of courses required for certification. A negative outcome, without question, is the extent to

which education courses tend to overlap each other and certain courses outside the professional sequence. Fused courses may also seem like superficial surveys to students who are ready for more intensive study.

EMPHASIS ON LABORATORY WORK. A growing awareness that the professional program has moved too far toward the academic study of educational theory has led to a trend in the direction of greater emphasis on laboratory work with children in schools. Some colleges even attempt to relate laboratory experiences to all pedagogical courses. The block or full-time pattern of student teaching has been widely endorsed as a means of providing more realistic apprenticeship training. In addition, pre-student teaching observation and participation, including such arrangements as the "September field experience," have served to increase the emphasis given to the laboratory aspects of the professional program.

CHARACTERISTIC PATTERNS OF THE PROFESSIONAL PROGRAM

Patterns of the professional program that are in operation today may be classified in terms of their placement and sequence in the college program, the organization of courses, and the curriculum emphasis. Because no standard plan has been generally adopted, many of the programs represent composite mixtures of various characteristic arrangements.

PLACEMENT AND SEQUENCE IN THE COLLEGE PROGRAM. Four basic patterns of placement in the college program are found to exist. The first represents the remnants of the *early normal school pattern* for preparing elementary-school teachers. This plan is found today in some teachers colleges even though they offer four-year programs. Eight states endorse this pattern. In Wisconsin it actually is found in 22 county teachers colleges which, despite their designation, are organized as two-year normal schools. Some junior colleges provide the two-year pattern to prepare teachers for elementary and rural schools.

Perhaps the most predominant pattern existing today is the *four-year distribution* of the professional sequence. The popularity of this plan results from its having been adopted by teachers colleges when they were converted from two- to four-year institutions. As many of these schools change to all-purpose institutions, they tend to retain the four-year arrangement. A typical example of this type of distribution is the one at Western Washington College of Education:

- First year:* Introduction to Education
- Second year:* General Psychology
Human Growth and Development
- Third year:* Psychology of Adjustment
Student Teaching (junior year) includes
teaching techniques
- Fourth year:* Student Teaching (block plan)
Social and Philosophical Foundations of
Education
Evaluation in the Public School

The pattern of placement most popular in liberal arts colleges and universities might be called the *upper division plan*. Under this arrangement the professional courses are scheduled in the junior and senior years of the student's college program. Prior to these years the student typically carries a full program of liberal arts work. During the final two years the prospective teacher takes courses in education which may be added to the requirements for graduation met by liberal arts students; in many cases this necessitates a correspondingly higher total number of hours required. In other cases education credits are taken in lieu of elective subjects permitted other students. The junior year of this type of pattern is typically devoted to the study of such courses as educational psychology, the American school system, and human development. *The senior year includes*, in most cases, methods of teaching and student teaching.

The fourth distinct pattern for placement of the professional sequence might be called the *post-baccalaureate phase*.

One form of this arrangement has existed for a number of years in a number of institutions in states such as California and New York, which have required five years of college preparation for high-school teaching. The post-baccalaureate training has developed in the past decade from experimental programs to attract liberal arts graduates to teaching.¹¹ Some of these distribute the sequence over two years; generally this program focuses on the internship. Others provide for a one-year sequence which often includes summer school study. This type of plan provides for all the course work in education to be grouped in the fifth year of college study. Depending upon the institution, it may be a year of college study which counts as the first year of graduate study or the final year of pre-graduate preparation. In traditional fifth-year programs, work in education, which is normally taken in the junior year of the upper division plans, is telescoped into the first semester of the fifth year, and the senior-year course, student teaching and methods, is offered during the second semester. Newer experimental plans which generally place greater emphasis on practice teaching or the internship may require student teaching with related study in education courses throughout the entire fifth year, or during the fifth and sixth years of college study.

ORGANIZATION OF PROGRAM. The professional program can be classified also according to the manner in which the courses in education are organized. In many cases this type of classification can refer to the organization of only certain aspects of the program, such as practice teaching.

Traditional course pattern. In this, the oldest type of organization, courses in education are organized in a manner similar to other college courses. The content of these courses is narrow to include some special division or topic within the general framework of the area of study. For example, under the traditional course pattern, a specific and specialized topic is treated, such as in the course "Teaching

¹¹ Paul Woodring, *New Directions in Teacher Education* (New York: The Fund for the Advancement of Education, 1957), p. 142.

Arithmetic in the Upper Elementary Grades." The content treated represents the central focus. The amount of credit allocated to given educational courses even conforms to the pattern prevailing in the liberal arts area, with usually not more than five hours assigned to one course. Students typically are required to take particular education courses, although options may be permitted in certain areas. Often the sequence of courses varies to fit student programs.

Correlated programs. Efforts to relate or fuse the content of various educational courses into longer blocks of study time under one or more instructors may be called correlated programs. Some institutions have used the term "core" to designate their attempt to achieve this objective. Such arrangements may provide only fused courses in such fields as human development, school and society, student teaching, and related methods and materials of instruction. It will be noticed that these courses encompass broad areas of interdependent and interrelated disciplines. Therefore, the organizational context of these correlated programs integrates content pertaining to society, the individual, and the learning-teaching process. As contrasted with the traditional courses, this philosophy of the correlated program would be reflected in such a course as "The Individual Learner and the Arithmetic Process." In a few cases, as in such institutions as the Milwaukee State College, the correlated program has permitted a group of students to complete the entire professional sequence under the same instruction.

The block plan. Although this classification typically refers to the manner in which student teaching is organized, it may be appropriately used to identify certain ways of organizing the entire professional pattern. This is practicable because the provisions for student teaching under the block plan influence the organization, placement, and sequence of other pedagogical courses. Essentially the *block plan for student teaching* provides that the student engage in student teaching and related study of educational principles, methods, curriculum, and materials for a block of time amounting to one quarter or one semester of the college

year. During this block of time the student usually devotes from six to ten weeks to full-time work in an off-campus school as an apprentice teacher. The semester block may encompass the entire professional requirement as it does at the University of Buffalo, or it may claim as much as 14 of 18 semester hours of education course credits, as is the practice in certain high-school fields at the University of Wisconsin. In either case the central emphasis in the block plan is the laboratory practice of teaching under supervision with other pedagogical content being closely integrated with practice.

CURRICULUM PATTERN. Two types of curriculum patterns can be identified in the professional program as it exists in various institutions today. The more historic one might be called the multiple-track plan, whereas the newer trend is appropriately labeled a single curriculum. The latter, it must be said, is being considered and recommended more than adopted at the present time.

Multiple-track curriculums. Depending upon the state certification requirements and the philosophy of a given institution, multiple track curriculums range from providing distinctly different curriculum tracks for various levels of the school system (kindergarten, lower elementary, upper elementary, and subject fields such as English, speech, chemistry, industrial arts, or home economics), to the practice of differentiating only between programs for elementary and secondary-school teaching. In colleges that maintain highly specialized curricular tracks, considerable difficulty and loss of time are experienced by students who decide to change from one field or level of teaching to another. A student preparing to teach the fourth grade, for example, may be required to take additional courses in pedagogy, or even repeat all or part of student teaching should he decide that he prefers to teach third grade. Similarly, at the high-school level a student preparing to teach history may be faced with a different set of requirements in education courses should he decide to change to teaching agriculture.

The chief virtue of the multiple-track curriculum is claimed to be the degree of specialization provided for dif-

ferent levels and fields of teaching. With a highly homogeneous group it is possible to stress in a more detailed manner the professional knowledge and skills required for particular types of teaching assignments. It is argued, for example, that teaching first grade is quite different from work at the fifth-grade level so that certain aspects of the professional requirements must be uniquely adapted to each type of preparation.

The single curriculum. Reactions against the multiple-track type of curriculums have led states such as Ohio, Washington, and New Jersey to issue licenses to teach at any grade level or in any subject field.¹² Such provisions have permitted the development of single professional requirements for all teachers. The philosophy supporting the development of the single curriculum holds that teachers, like doctors and lawyers, should be given common certification to practice. It is argued that the same knowledge about the organization and function of schools in a democratic society, learning, human development, and methods of instruction should be acquired by all teachers regardless of their intended level or field of teaching. It is claimed that the specialized application of professional knowledge can be learned during student teaching as well as on the job, or, in cases where intensive knowledge is required, through additional formal study at the graduate level.

Proponents of the single curriculum point to the advantages that are to be gained by permitting teachers to change easily from one type of assignment to another. They point out also that the essential difference in preparation should rest in the subject fields of specialization rather than in the pedagogical requirements.

Although the single type curriculum is not yet widely adopted, it is receiving serious study and support from such groups as the National Commission for Accreditation of Teacher Education, the National Commission for Teacher

¹² W. Earl Armstrong, "The Single Curriculum Movement in Teacher Education," American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, *Third Yearbook* (1950), pp. 174-82.

Education and Professional Standards of the NEA, and certain officials in state departments of public instruction. It also finds a warm reception from political and lay leaders who have found the multiple-curriculum and related certification practices a deterrent to the most efficient, economical utilization of teacher competence.

EMPHASIS. The professional phase of teacher education may be said to differ from one institution to another in terms of its emphasis. Two types—one, the theoretical; the other, the practical—are becoming more clearly defined.

Traditionally the universities and liberal arts colleges have been the proponents of the theoretical emphasis. They have sought to develop scholars in the field of education rather than to train skilled practitioners. On the other hand, teachers colleges have stressed practice, techniques, and procedures designed to prepare for the early stages of teaching.

Theoretical emphasis. A common complaint of prospective teachers is that the study of pedagogy places too much emphasis on theory and not enough stress on practice. This emphasis is not entirely a matter of accident in some institutions. Nor can it be attributed wholly to the fact that insufficient research has been done to validate educational theories. In certain institutions the professional program is theoretically oriented because of the belief of those in charge that this should be the nature of the pre-service professional preparation of the teacher. Such a view assumes that a teacher who has been well grounded in theory and educational scholarship will be able to cultivate the soil of practice with greater professional skill and maturity than one who has only been technically prepared to teach.

Programs committed to the theoretical emphasis tend to stress the academic study of educational theory, history, and principles. They rest on the assumption that the student can intellectualize the professional content with a minimum of laboratory experience with children and

schools. Student teaching is typically the only course in which practical work is presented, and even this course may carry only a small number of credit hours. Courses in methods of teaching may be scheduled apart, often in a separate semester, from student teaching on the assumption that the student himself will be able to integrate the practical application of theory and principles.

Practical emphasis. Contrasted to the theoretical approach, which provides for only nominal applications of theory, is the practical pattern, which provides for substantial practice as the central emphasis in the professional requirements. Institutions adhering to this philosophy provide for extensive laboratory work with children and schools throughout the entire professional program. Some have designated all education courses as the laboratory type, comparable to those in science, in order to give the prospective teacher a chance to test out educational theory by laboratory practice at each stage of his professional orientation. Newer post-baccalaureate programs of teacher education tend to be of the practical emphasis type. They build the total study in education around the internship.

Proponents of the practical-emphasis curriculum argue that the first phase of the professionalization of the teacher must be to prepare for successful classroom teaching. Most educators recognize the value of theoretical and scholarly study of education and its processes. They prefer, however, to relate such study closely to the practical preparation of the teacher, or they advocate that the theoretical considerations should be explored in graduate courses after the teacher has become acquainted with the actual dimensions of the teaching process.

ISSUES AND PROBLEMS RELATED TO THE PROFESSIONAL PROGRAM

Criticisms of teacher education center on certain key issues and problems in the professional program. Actually, not all of the weaknesses in the program of preparation provided teachers for elementary and secondary schools in the

United States can, by any analysis, be attributed entirely to the professional phase. Nevertheless, deficiencies in this area have attracted the most public attention and, in a sense, can be said to represent the battleground of the proponents and opponents of the professional education of the teacher.

Omitted from the following classification of pertinent issues and problems are those which spring from the jurisdictional conflicts within institutions of higher learning between the claims for the student's time by pedagogical preparation and the demands made by other aspects of the program. Instead, the intent here is only to identify points that relate to the professional phase itself and to the manner in which it is fulfilling its own function and obligation in the teacher education program.

VALUE TO THE PROSPECTIVE TEACHER. Since its inception, particularly in universities, the professional program has faced the charge that it contributes negligibly to the preparation of the prospective teacher. Excepted from this criticism, both historically and universally, has been the laboratory work in student teaching. In recent years this sweeping indictment of pedagogical preparation has become more widespread. Not only have the critics of teacher education voiced this view, but also many teachers themselves have indicated that education courses do not provide the help for the beginning teacher that they are purported to furnish. Some institutions¹³ are evaluating this criticism seriously and objectively by ascertaining how prospective teachers and graduates in service react to their experience in the professional phase.

DUPLICATION OF CONTENT. It has been charged that pedagogical courses, though of value to the student, included too much duplication of content not only within their own field but also with various courses in other fields. This indictment is so destructive of public confidence that

¹³Lindley J. Stiles, "Attitudes toward Education Courses," *Journal of Teacher Education*, 10 (June 1951) pp. 182-88.

it cannot stand uncorrected if the professional phase of teacher education is to perform its function with maximum efficiency.

SUPERFICIALITY OF CONTENT. More serious than the charge that education courses overlap in subject matter and emphasis is the criticism that many deal with content so superficial that it is already a part of the experience and "common sense" of the students. An aspect of this criticism concerns the tendency of professors to teach courses in education at a level and with instructional procedures below the maturity of students. It is claimed that education courses are easy, that students rarely fail them, and that professors of education give disproportionately higher marks than do their colleagues in academic fields.

POOR INSTRUCTION. Prospective teachers expect professors of education to be the best examples of college instructors. In far too many instances such, apparently, is not the case. While it is true that any list of great college teachers would include the names of some professors of education, perhaps even a proportionate representation, it must be admitted that professors of education as a group are not rated as outstanding teachers.

FAILURE TO ADAPT WORK TO INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES. It is ironic that professors of education who have been the leading advocates of the desirability of adjusting school work to the individual differences of students should be charged with failing to adapt their own education courses to the differences of prospective teachers. But this seems to be the tendency. The professional program in many institutions provides that all students, at least those in a given field of preparation, take the same pattern of required education courses. Frequently, particularly in large institutions, students must enroll for sections of education courses without knowing who will teach them, or without a chance to consider whether *some, or a substantial portion,* of the content has already been studied. Too often—the criticisms run—students in education courses are compelled

to engage in the same activities and to complete identical numbers and types of assignments without reference to the background and abilities of individual students.

INSUFFICIENT LABORATORY EXPERIENCE. Most prospective teachers and those already in the profession tend to agree that an insufficient amount of time of the professional sequence is devoted to laboratory work with children in school situations. Student teaching is the single course in education which strongly is endorsed from one institution to another as being outstanding in the pre-service program of preparation for teaching. This course is always ranked high in quality and value, even when compared with the best courses in liberal arts. Yet, departments and schools of education have exhibited considerable reluctance to meet the criticism that laboratory work is insufficient by allocating a greater proportion of the education credit hours to laboratory courses.

PLACEMENT WITHIN PRE-SERVICE PROGRAM. The professional sequence is criticized because in many institutions it is so placed in the teacher education program that it introduces the student to professional problems before he is ready to concentrate seriously on developing knowledge and skill for teaching. This charge is probably more true for girls than for boys, since many girls enter college with the admonition from their parents that they must prepare to teach in case they do not find a husband. As a consequence many would prefer to postpone the less attractive alternative until they have had a chance to try to achieve their natural preference. When the professional phase begins early, these students may not be psychologically ready for its emphasis.

Other objections to the placement of the professional sequence spring from the fact that its arrangement in the four-year college program often eliminates from preparation for teaching those young people, many of them extremely able, who prefer to complete a full program of liberal arts before beginning professional concentration.

OVER-EMPHASIS ON METHOD. It is thought that this criticism applies more to programs of preparation for elementary-school teaching that still require a multiplicity of separate courses for teaching various subjects of the elementary-school program than to high-school preparation. Actually, when methods of teaching are taught in conjunction with student teaching, such study is rather generally endorsed by prospective teachers. Yet the assertion is common that the programs require too much emphasis on methods of teaching.

EMPHASIS ON THEORY APART FROM PRACTICE. The widely held belief prevails that education courses deal almost exclusively with untested educational theory. An added criticism that often comes from students is that the theoretical aspects of the professional sequence are divorced from the practical elements of the program.

FUTURE OF THE PROFESSIONAL PROGRAM

Despite widespread criticisms of the professional aspects of teacher education programs, everyone, including the most extreme antagonists, agrees that at least some emphasis upon pedagogical preparation is essential for elementary- and secondary-school teachers. The controversy centers on the nature of the emphasis, the placement and amount, as well as the over-all quality of the professional program.

Beyond the general endorsement of student teaching and the related study of methods and materials of instruction, no aspect of the program has won universal acceptance. Educational psychology and history of education, two traditional foundation fields, are supported by some as the only additional areas of pedagogical study worthy of inclusion in the pre-service professional program. Philosophy of education is frequently endorsed, along with or as a part of the study of history of education. The newer course in human development, apart from a course in educational psychology, has as yet won less acceptance generally.

The two-fold nature of the program of professional preparation is generally recognized and endorsed. Even the Committee on Teacher Training of the National Council of Independent Schools, a body that appraises work in pedagogy with a critical bias, recognized that the professional program should include: (a) systematic study of education and its problems, and (b) practice teaching under expert supervision.¹⁴ The question is raised whether the practical portion, student teaching or an internship, should be included in the four-year college program or made a responsibility of employing institutions. Such proposals call attention to the possibility of school systems taking greater responsibility for the laboratory aspects of the professional program than has been their practice in the past.

Two trends seem clear in the patterns for the professional program that are now claiming increased support.¹⁵ One is in the direction towards a greater emphasis on the practical or applied preparation for classroom teaching which is usually integrated into the block plan of student teaching or the internship. The other relates to the placement of the professional phase of teacher education at the post-baccalaureate level. In addition, it may be assumed that as research produces evidence that supports the superiority of given procedures and patterns over others, the variety in professional programs that has prevailed will tend to disappear.

That the professional phase of the program of teacher education will continue to exist, there can be no doubt. That it has yet to win general acceptance by proving that such study can be "rigorous and disciplined" and fully worthy of the time allocated to it in terms of its contribution to the development of superior teachers is equally true.

¹⁴ Committee on Teacher Training of the National Council of Independent Schools, *Preparation of Teachers for Secondary Schools* (Boston, Mass.: National Council of Independent Schools, 1952), p. 41.

¹⁵ Paul Woodring, *New Directions in Teacher Education* (New York: The Fund for the Advancement of Education, 1957) p. 142.

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CHAPTER 11

Professional Laboratory Experiences

One of the most significant developments in teacher education in the past two decades has been the expansion of organized "professional laboratory experiences" as an integral part of many pre-service teacher education programs. In an increasing number of teacher education institutions these experiences are organized to provide opportunities for prospective teachers to acquire understanding and skills essential to the performance of the numerous duties of the teacher in the present-day school. These activities embrace guided observation of, and participation with, children, youth, and adults in a wide range of school and community situations.

EMERGING CONCEPTS

A laboratory situation is one in which a spirit of inquiry and experimentation is fostered. In a problem-solving situation, the participants have the freedom and the obligation to identify a problem, make careful observations and accurate measurements for its solution, project hypotheses, record results, and draw conclusions in the light of the verified results. In a social laboratory human relationships and values are identified and evaluated in terms of democratic

values. The term *experiences* refers to the interaction of the individual with his environment, either directly or vicariously. The difference in the nature of the individual's involvement in a given situation has given rise to the terms *direct experience* and *vicarious experience*. In a direct experience an individual personally undergoes or lives through an event or situation. In a vicarious experience an individual faces and reflects upon an event or situation without actual personal involvement. Both types of experiences are important, but vicarious experiences may have limited meaning or value to the learner unless they are accompanied or preceded by direct experiences. Learning in both instances results from the purposeful interaction of the learner and the environment.

The recent expansion of professional laboratory experiences in teacher education programs can be attributed to the acceptance of the idea that the learning activities of prospective teachers should be based on the principles that apply to all effective learning. In their endeavors to expand and improve laboratory experiences, leaders in the movement have emphasized the importance of matters such as learner purpose, motivation, past experiences, self-activity, generalization, and application or use.

THE NORMAL SCHOOL INFLUENCE. The first normal schools established in the United States organized and maintained classes of elementary-school pupils to enable their students to observe the work of experienced teachers and do a limited amount of practice teaching in these classes. The first private normal school founded in 1823 by Reverend Samuel Hall included a few classes of this type.

The regulations formulated by the Massachusetts State Board of Education concerning the course of studies for the first public normal school in the United States, which opened at Lexington, Massachusetts in 1839, stated that the programs should be designed "to effect two objects" as follows:¹

¹ Vernon L. Manguon, *The American Normal School* (Baltimore: Warwick and York, Inc., 1928), p. 120.

First the attainment of a more thorough and systematic acquaintance with the branches [subjects] usually taught in common schools, and an adequate foundation in other parts of knowledge highly useful to the skillful teacher; and secondly, the art of imparting instruction to the youthful mind, which will be taught in its principles and illustrated by opportunity for practice, by means of a model school.

Further evidence of the awareness of the leaders in the early phases of the normal school movement for the need to combine theory and practice in programs of teacher education is revealed in a resolution adopted at the First Annual Convention of the American Normal School Association in 1859. The resolution was as follows: ²

Resolved: that this education of teachers should not only be theoretical, but also practical; and that, to this end, there should be either a school of observation and practice in immediate connection with the normal school, and under the same Board of Control, or that there should be in other ways equivalent opportunities for observation and practice.

The observation and other forms of participation by college students in these model schools were focused upon the techniques of instruction. By observing the work of a skillful, experienced teacher, the prospective teacher would acquire a set of effective teaching methods for use in his own teaching. The student did his practice afterwards and followed rigidly prescribed lesson plans. Despite the difficulty a person has in repeating exact procedures followed in one situation, these observations represented the first step away from mere verbalism in programs of teacher education.

Strongly influenced by the scientific movement in education, many of the newly established normal schools organized campus *training schools* in which even more definite patterns of teaching techniques were employed. In their observations and practice teaching normal school students were expected to follow prescribed rules or systems of teaching. The observation of demonstration teaching by superior

²E. I. F. Williams, *The Actual and Potential Use of Laboratory Schools* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1912), p. 10.

teachers was used extensively to illustrate how these patterns of teaching procedures should be utilized.

The student observers were expected to note the demonstration lesson and construct lesson plans for use in their own practice teaching in accordance with the methods they had observed. Emphasis was placed upon the construction and use of lesson plans illustrating the deductive, inductive, and the deductive-inductive method of organizing and teaching a topic.

VARIETY IN LABORATORY EXPERIENCES. In recent years there has been a tendency to reject the "teaching-by-formula" approach in the preparation of teachers. There is rather widespread acceptance at present of the idea that the growth of the prospective teacher is best promoted by placing the primary responsibility upon him for making decisions concerning the selection, organization, and presentation of instructional materials in terms of the principles of teaching which are relevant in a given classroom situation. In preparing prospective teachers for this type of responsibility in the classroom and for their role in the total school and community situation, teacher education institutions have recognized the necessity of providing opportunities for their students to combine their understanding of the principles of teaching acquired in college classes with insight gained by active involvement in professional laboratories.

The modern concept of professional laboratory experiences may be said to have had its origin in the adoption in 1926 of a set of standards for accreditation of teacher education institutions by the American Association of Teachers Colleges. One of the standards included a list of minimum quantitative requirements for campus laboratory schools. Despite the limitations of quantitative standards in promoting quality education programs, the application of these standards served a useful purpose in improving the facilities of campus laboratory schools.

Further impetus was given the laboratory experience idea in 1945 when the Committee on Standards and Surveys of the American Association of Colleges of Education, aware of

the need of qualitative standards in the development of functional programs of teacher education, appointed a subcommittee to formulate a set of standards for student teaching. The subcommittee broadened the scope of its study to incorporate professional laboratory experiences, including student teaching.

In its report in 1918 the subcommittee expressed the point of view that a teacher education program should include opportunities for the prospective teacher to engage in "first-hand experiences that go beyond verbalization and fixed skills to action based upon thinking and the creative use of skills"³ in a variety of situations. Each teacher education institution was urged to implement the program of professional laboratory experiences by providing various types of facilities, as follows: one or more college-controlled schools, several other schools (off-campus) with different philosophies and curricula in varied types of communities, and non-school community agencies. A program of professional laboratory experience properly embraces student teaching and perhaps internship experiences. However, since the organization and administration of these two programs present numerous unique or distinctive problems, they are discussed in Chapters 12 and 13.

ESSENTIAL CHARACTERISTICS OF A PROGRAM OF PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCES. No single pattern of professional laboratory experiences applies equally well in all colleges. The various plans devised by different teacher education institutions differ considerably as to the details of organization and administration. There is, however, general agreement that an adequate program should possess all or many of the characteristics listed below:

1. *The program should be of sufficient scope and variety to afford responsible participation in all the major phases of the teacher's work.* The results of analyzing the work of the teacher are used by some teacher education institutions

³ John G. Flowers, Chairman, Subcommittee, The American Association of Colleges of Teacher Education, *First Yearbook* (Oneonta, N. Y., 1918), p. 91.

as a basis for planning their programs of professional laboratory experiences. The findings of these studies and other research in the area reveal that a functional program of preparing teachers to perform their numerous duties in the school and the community has many facets. Direct experiences of prospective teachers should include, in addition to actual classroom activities, case studies of individual children, and work with small groups of children, youth organizations, and adult community groups.

It is highly problematical that any one type of situation can provide the range of direct experiences necessary to meet all the needs of prospective teachers. Not only is it essential for each teacher to engage in many different kinds of activities, but individual students in a teacher education program also vary greatly in terms of the types of direct experiences each one needs. Current endeavors of teacher education institutions to include laboratory experiences for their students in campus schools, off-campus schools, and nonschool community agencies are based on a recognition of the unique contribution each experience makes to the total program.

2. *The program should grow out of the regular teacher education curriculum and return to it to enrich and vitalize it.* The student relates his knowledge of the basic principles of learning and teaching acquired in the regular college classes to the activities in which he participates in the laboratory. His direct experiences serve not only to give greater meaning to these principles but also to develop some skill in applying the principles to actual teaching situations. This relationship between the regular curriculum and laboratory experience should be established early and maintained throughout a student's college career. Direct experiences should be an essential part of each year of the teacher education program.

3. *The program should be sufficiently flexible to provide for individual differences in the abilities, needs, previous experiences, and professional goals of prospective teachers.* The supervisory and guidance personnel responsible for the

administration of the program should assist each college student to select and engage in the type of direct experiences that have optimum potential value for him. For purposes of orientation in the early phases of his program, a student may profit most by a series of observations in which he obtains an over-all view of the school program, the work of the teacher, and the activities of pupils at different grade levels. Later in his college work the student's direct experiences might well include limited and/or full responsibility for directing the activities of children or youth in various situations. In administering programs of professional laboratory experiences, colleges should also consider the differences in the previous experience of college students. For example, one student may have had considerable experience in working with children and youth in out-of-school situations while another student has had little or no such contacts.

4. *The program should be planned cooperatively by the student and members of the laboratory and college staffs in terms of the situation and the needs of the student involved.* In the planning, student purposes are clarified, and decisions are made concerning the extent and nature of activities in which the student is to engage. The planning phase can be a valuable learning experience for the student if he is directly involved in formulating, executing, and evaluating plans in accordance with accepted objectives.

5. *The program should provide for student involvement in challenging and meaningful situations in an atmosphere of freedom which encourages him to test his ability to translate his ideas into action.* Opportunities should be provided for the student to reflect upon and intellectualize his experiences as a basis of action in other situations. This freedom of the student to accept responsibility for his activities does not imply that he should not be supervised and guided in the interpretation of his experiences.

6. *The program should enable the prospective teacher to engage in activities which will contribute to his competence in performing the following responsibilities of the*

teacher: (a) Understanding children of different levels of maturity, abilities, and interests; and identifying home, school, and community conditions which influence the thought and overt behavior patterns of children and youth. (b) Establishing and maintaining satisfactory pupil-teacher, teacher-teacher, teacher-administrator, and teacher-community relationships. (c) Utilizing various types of instructional materials including local community resources, educational TV, films, tape recordings, charts, and similar aids to teaching. (d) Acquiring skill in the use of appropriate methods of teaching individuals and directing small and general class activities. (e) Learning how to make effective use of the services of special consultants on a school staff, such as reading consultants, guidance counselors, etc. (f) Serving on curriculum and other teacher committees. (g) Evaluating pupil achievements and progress. (h) Creating an awareness of the nature and extent of the teacher's participation in the life of the community in which the school is located.

7. *The program should be planned and conducted with a view to the benefits to be derived by the school and community.* Teachers and supervising personnel in a laboratory school are faced with a constant challenge to assist prospective teachers in their endeavors to acquire the competencies necessary for effective teaching. In assuming this responsibility the teachers may be stimulated to make critical evaluations of their own teaching as the basis of their continued professional growth.

The program of a community agency can be enriched and in some cases expanded by the work of the prospective teacher in a well-organized program of community laboratory experiences. If the students assist in making studies of community conditions, the results may be useful in programs of community improvement.

IMPLEMENTATION OF THE PROGRAM

An increasing number of colleges have expanded their programs of direct experiences for their students beyond

the college-controlled campus school by developing cooperative plans with various public school and nonschool agencies. These plans are based on the belief that no one situation can offer the range of experiences needed by a student preparing to teach in the present-day school. Ideally each of these agencies is utilized because of the unique contribution it makes to the total education of a teacher. Practical considerations also have dictated the use of more than one agency. Confronted with the necessity of providing for increasing enrollments in teacher education programs, many colleges find it impossible to arrange professional laboratory experiences (particularly student teaching) for all their students in any one school.

Some colleges have organized their programs to enable prospective teachers to engage in a series of graded laboratory experiences, ranging from limited participation in their first year of college to responsible work in their senior year. Some of these experiences are gained by participation in the college-campus activities, in connection with regular college courses, through assignments in the campus laboratory school, in off-campus schools and/or community agencies.

PROFESSIONAL LABORATORY EXPERIENCES IN THE COLLEGE CURRICULUM. There are many student activities on the college campus in which prospective teachers can obtain direct experiences related to preparation for teaching. Active participation in the activities of various students' organizations, such as the general student organizations, conferences, committees, social clubs, intramural sports, and religious organizations, has great potential values in the personal-social development of the prospective teacher. Student organizations affiliated with the state and national education associations are established in many teacher education institutions, and provide opportunities for prospective teachers to participate actively in the professional activities of the state and national education organizations.

In addition to participation in the activities of student organizations, the individual may enrich his cultural background by utilizing other educational and cultural resources

of the campus and community. Art exhibits, musicales, historical museums, scientific exhibits, and lectures are available to students in many colleges in addition to the work in the courses they are taking for credit.

Students enrolled in general education courses in some colleges obtain meaningful direct experiences in connection with their study of various topics in those courses. Students in sociology courses, under the guidance of their instructors, make first-hand studies of communities, conduct community surveys including analyses of living conditions, youth-serving and other community agencies. These activities can be of considerable value to prospective teachers in making them aware of the problems of community living. Data concerning the social structure and interpersonal relationships of student groups and those of various community groups also are obtained by the construction of sociograms for study and evaluation by members of college classes.

Field trips of college science classes provide the prospective teacher with information concerning how such trips are planned, conducted, and evaluated. College classes in art, music, and modern foreign languages may visit elementary- and high-school classes in those subjects to observe the work being done.

Indication of the increased interest in including first-hand experiences for prospective teachers as part of regular college courses is even more evident in professional education courses. Many teacher-education institutions offer a course called Professional Orientation for prospective teachers in their freshman college year. In the study of the topics concerning the teaching profession and the role of the school as an educational and social agency, the class discussions are supplemented by visits to schools to observe building facilities, equipment, and classroom activities. In a doctoral study at the University of Indiana, Ogilvie⁴ found that of 128 members of the American Association of Colleges for

⁴William Kay Ogilvie. "An Analysis of the Organizational Patterns, Purposes, and Content of the Introductory Course in the Pre Service Professional Education of Teachers," *Studies in Education, Thesis Abstracts Series, 1956* (Bloomington, Indiana: The University Press), pp. 222-27.

Teacher Education reporting, ninety or 70.3 per cent incorporated lecture activities and professional laboratory experiences in the introductory course in education.

In courses in educational psychology and in child growth and development, provision is made in many colleges for the readings and class discussions to be interspersed with visits by the students to schools to observe the activities and reactions of children and youth at different levels of maturity. At Winona State College⁵ students in the course, Child Development, accompanied by their instructor, observe the classes in the Campus School. After each observation, the college students, the teacher of the campus school, and the instructor of the child development course meet and make a critical analysis of what they have observed. As part of the follow-up discussion the college students help plan the next lesson for the class based upon the lesson they have observed. Thus the students' involvement in the situation includes observation and participation in the work of the teacher of the class.

At the Ohio State University, exploratory teaching in the public school setting is provided as a part of the general methods course for secondary-school teachers. It consists of brief periods of responsible teaching by the student before he enrolls for student teaching. In these periods the student plans, organizes materials, and uses them in guiding the learning of a group of students. Thus he tests himself and his ideas of teaching before he engages in the more complex responsibilities of student teaching.

Contacts with schools are continued in other professional courses in which the members of the classes devote more of their time to the study of pupils enrolled in the type of school where they plan to teach. Case studies of individual pupils by members of the college classes also are included as part of the work in these courses.

⁵ Reported by Kay Dunlay, Supervising Teacher, Laboratory School, Winona (Minnesota) State College, August, 1959.

Many colleges offer a required course in professional experiences for their students just prior to their student teaching. This course is designed to contribute to the students' readiness for student teaching by providing planned observation and limited participation in school and community activities.

A course designed to provide professional laboratory experience for prospective secondary-school teachers is offered at the University of Kentucky. The course entitled "The Secondary School Pupil" is described by Reed⁶ as follows:

The instructor of this particular course had conferences with individual students to discuss the interests and needs in terms of working with children and youth. Conferences were then held with the supervisor of the youth-serving agency and, at this time, the student learned of the purposes of the agency and the ways through which these purposes were achieved. The hours which the student would contribute were then determined, and he reported to the supervisor each week. Students worked with such agencies as Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Little League Ball Clubs, Recreation Centers, Crippled Children's Hospital, and the YWCA and YMCA. The instructor of this class supervised as much as was possible, but the limits of his time prevented the kind of supervision which one would wish he could give. The supervisors of these agencies write reports of the students at the close of each semester and these reports are included in the folders which were sent to the supervising teachers the following semester (the semester in which the student did his student teaching).

In addition to the work with the youth-serving agency, the student observed and participated in elementary, junior, and senior high school classrooms. The participation includes such activities as story hours, "great books study," assisting a student with additional work or make-up work, administering standardized tests, checking standardized tests, charting the results of these tests, taking a small committee of students on a "field trip," assisting small groups of students in the University library, checking the roll in classrooms, giving a spelling lesson, helping small groups collect and organize materials for classes, introducing films to classes, giving "talks" to classes when a particular contribution to classes could be made, arranging bulletin boards, keep-

⁶ Personal letter from Helen M. Reed, Coordinator of Student Teaching in the Senior High Schools, University of Kentucky, dated March 20, 1959. Quoted by permission of the author.

ing log of observations and participation, examining and evaluating audio-visual materials, conducting music appreciation hours, and conducting "listening" hours. Some of the activities included in the participation experience were conducted before school, during home room periods, during study hour periods, and after school. The observations and participation were carried out in the campus school, primarily; some observations, however, were scheduled in our cooperating schools. Classroom teachers have an added responsibility in giving direction to such activities, but we believe these kinds of activities are necessary laboratory experiences.

Prospective secondary-school teachers enrolled in the Teachers College, University of Cincinnati, are required to take a course entitled "Principles and Practices of Secondary Education." One part of this course consists of "junior participation" by the students. Carter⁷ describes the manner in which this part of the course is conducted as follows:

Each student must reserve a three-hour free block of time in his weekly schedule during the Junior year in college. The instructor of the Junior Principles and Practices course to whom the student is assigned works with supervisory personnel and principals in the Cincinnati public schools to locate a cooperating teacher who would be willing to work with the student during his three-hour per week observation and participation assignment. The student works with a cooperating teacher in his major teaching field during one of the two semesters of the Junior year and in one of his minor teaching fields during the other semester. The college supervisor works closely with the cooperating teacher in evaluating the observation and participation experiences of the student. It is very difficult to say exactly what each student does during the period of his assignment because this will vary with the capabilities and imagination of the cooperating teacher. However, it is safe to say that a portion of the time is spent just in observing the cooperating teacher at work in the classroom. Some time is devoted to the grading of papers, working with the cooperating teacher on assignments that are to be made, helping in the construction of examinations, and frequently by the end of the semester a Junior participant may take over the class to teach one or more specific lessons that he feels capable of presenting. Each Junior student keeps a running log of his experiences in the observation and participation assignment, and this is turned in to the college supervi-

⁷ Personal letter from William L. Carter, Associate Professor of Education, dated May 7, 1959, quoted by permission of the author.

sor three to five times a semester so that the college supervisor may get some idea of the variety of experiences that he is having. The college supervisor, however, is still dependent upon the cooperating teacher for specifics concerning the successes and failures of the Junior during this period. This is primarily due to the fact that the Junior course enrolls something like 65 students per semester and we only have three people on our staff designated as college supervisors for these students. The Junior participation is a very time-consuming activity for the college supervisor, if it is to be done properly, and it is my personal belief that no one supervisor should have over ten to twelve Junior participants to supervise each semester. Our Program has worked rather successfully for five years, and there seems to be a good attitude toward this requirement in the Junior Principles and Practices course on the part of students in our Program. I should also point out that I am talking about Junior participation for students in the academic teaching fields, or more specifically English, mathematics, science, social studies, speech and foreign language.

Concurrently with or following student teaching, required seminars are offered in many colleges. In these seminars topics based on the prospective teachers' experiences as student teachers are studied.

THE COLLEGE-CONTROLLED CAMPUS SCHOOL AS A PROFESSIONAL LABORATORY

CHIEF FUNCTION. The college-controlled campus school is perhaps the most significant distinctive contribution of the teachers college to teacher education in this country. In the evaluation of teacher education programs, the campus laboratory school has been called upon to play an ever-increasing important role. From the narrow concept of the campus training school as a purveyor of ready-made patterns of teaching methods, the present-day campus laboratory school contributes to an effective teacher education program in many ways. Prominent among its functions are to:

1. Serve as a professional laboratory facility for observation and participation by prospective teachers
2. Conduct research and experimentation in child growth and development and in the use of instructional materials and teaching procedures
3. Test and demonstrate forward-looking school practices

4. Enrich the program of graduate studies in education
5. Exercise leadership in in-service education programs for teachers

OBSERVATION AND PARTICIPATION. Campus schools typically concentrate on one or two of the above functions in terms of their available facilities, personnel, and financial resources. The majority of campus schools emphasize the pre-service education of teachers by providing opportunities for a wide variety of direct experiences for prospective teachers. These experiences range from observing demonstrations of classroom teaching to responsible participation in the various activities of the school.

Observations in laboratory schools frequently extend throughout the college career of the prospective teacher and may range from the informal to the carefully planned types of observation. The purposes of observation are as numerous and varied as the needs of individual prospective teachers. Among the chief purposes of observation are to:

1. Gain a broad perspective of teaching by obtaining an over-view of a school
2. Observe the activities of teachers in performing their role in the present-day school
3. Acquire insight into directing the learning activities of pupils of varying abilities, interests, and educational goals
4. Note characteristic behavior patterns of children and adolescents at different levels of maturity
5. Observe differences among pupils of a given age group
6. Study the reactions of pupils to different methods of motivation, discipline, and management of routine matters
7. Note the source of information and the procedures used by teachers in gaining an understanding of their pupils as a basis for the selection of appropriate instructional materials and teaching techniques
8. Observe how theories of learning are translated into practice by the use of various methods of teaching, such as: pupil-teacher planning; individual, small-group, and large-group activities; and cooperative evaluation of pupil progress

9. Ascertain how classroom teachers utilize the services of consultants in curriculum, guidance, reading, etc.
10. Observe the effectiveness of different types of instructional materials, especially some of the newer ones, such as educational television and modern foreign language laboratory equipment.

DEMONSTRATION OBSERVATION. The plans for observation are devised in terms of the main purposes to be served. Observation by members of college classes designed to relate theory to practice usually involve the planned visit to the campus school by the entire class with their instructor or the viewing of such a class via closed circuit television. If a demonstration lesson is to be observed, the instructor of the college course and the demonstration teacher agree upon the topic to be taught. Students are briefed in advance and a follow-up discussion is held after the demonstration. Maximum benefits can be derived from these observational experiences only when the staff of the campus laboratory school and the instructors of the professional courses understand each other's programs and closely correlate the work of the students in the two situations.

Provisions also are made for an individual student who is studying a particular subject to make observations on his own initiative in the campus school. Required courses in observation for which credit is granted to prospective teachers are offered in many teacher education institutions. Other plans involve a combination of observation and student teaching. The observations may precede the actual student teaching or may be interspersed with it. Opportunities are arranged in some instances for students to observe certain phases of teaching after they have completed their student teaching.

The optimum values of observing a demonstration lesson cannot be realized unless the observers not only understand the purpose of their observations but also have an understanding of the immediate and long-range objectives of the teacher and some information concerning the pupils in the class. Group conferences of the observers and the demonstration teacher preceding the demonstration are useful in

this respect. The demonstration is usually followed by another group conference in which a critical analysis of the teaching is made to enable the student observers to generalize and reflect upon their observational experience.

Observations designed to contribute to a student's readiness for student teaching in the campus or off-campus school may be focused more directly upon teaching-learning situations with special attention to matters of classroom management, study of pupils in the age group the student teacher will most likely teach, and teaching techniques. In the period immediately preceding his student-teaching the student's observations may be supplemented by limited participation in teaching activities under the guidance of the supervising teacher. Essential to the success of all these plans for observation is a recognition by supervising teachers and college instructors of the need of most college students for instruction in the techniques of observation.

TEACHER AID ACTIVITIES. In addition to observation, other types of direct experiences are provided in various campus laboratory schools. Many of these experiences provide for the prospective teacher's involvement in classroom activities, which range from assisting a supervising teacher in the distribution of materials in the classroom to responsible student teaching. Since student teaching is discussed in Chapter 12, only a brief reference to various forms of limited participation is made in this chapter. As part of the student's assignment in the campus school, he assists the supervising teacher in routine matters, administering and scoring tests, constructing sociograms, directing the activities of class committees and small groups, supervising intramural sports and other extraclass activities, assembling source materials for use by pupils in the study of certain units, and occasionally assuming responsibility for the presentation of a topic to the entire class. In the later stages of the prospective teacher's experience in the school, he may be invited to sit in on teacher committee and school faculty meetings.

RESEARCH AND EXPERIMENTATION. Other functions are discharged to some degree by choice or necessity in many

campus schools. Properly interrelated these functions may reinforce one another. For example, it is highly problematical that the campus school can be a satisfactory facility for the professional laboratory experiences of prospective teachers unless an all-pervading attitude of experimentation and research is given expression by the staff of the school. There appears to be an increasing awareness among educators and psychologists of the need for all teacher education institutions to maintain laboratory schools as research centers for use by undergraduate and graduate students and college instructors in their studies of child growth and development.

Several college campus schools have been notable for their experimentation and other forms of research, particularly in the areas of child development, use of instructional materials, and teaching procedures. Some of the schools which have contributed to the emergence of teaching as a profession with a body of tested knowledge and skills are the University of Chicago, under the leadership of Parker, Dewey, and Judd; the University of Missouri under Merriam; Ohio State University, under the direction of Arps and Cottrell; and Teachers College, Columbia University, under Caldwell.

The apparent incompatibility of student teaching and formal research as functions of the campus school is somewhat reduced in an increasing number of teacher education institutions by the greater use of public school facilities for student teaching. The research conducted in the campus school may range from the simple informal type including action research on problems of the school, to carefully controlled experimentation. The character of the school population, the special abilities of the staff, and the facilities determine the nature and scope of the research conducted in the school.

Experimental situations can be arranged in which grade placement of content may be studied, such as the teaching of modern foreign language at different grade levels in the elementary school. The relative effectiveness of methods of teaching the gifted or the slow learner can be determined

experimentally. The staff of the campus school can study the effectiveness of its professional laboratory program by follow-up studies of the graduates of the college who have observed and participated in the campus school program.

The implementation of the findings of research conducted elsewhere is an important activity of the campus school. The principles of learning and teaching, formulated on the basis of studies and experimentation, can be applied and tested by the use of a variety of instructional materials and methods. The observation and analysis of the results of this research in actual classroom situations are useful to prospective and in-service teachers in gaining a clearer understanding of the principles involved.

PROFESSIONAL LEADERSHIP FUNCTION. The staff of the campus school is in a favorable position to assist other members of the teacher education faculty of the college in relating theory to practice. Cooperative planning between the college course instructors and the campus school faculty is necessary to give purpose and direction to the observation and other activities of prospective teachers in the campus school and the college classes alike. Since the campus school is the main resource for experimentation in most teacher education institutions, its faculty can share in planning and conducting the research of graduate students and members of the college faculty. Competent members can demonstrate the effective use of instructional materials and various teaching methods which are being taught prospective teachers in their college classes.

The campus school can exercise an important leadership role in programs of in-service education of teachers. The staff of the campus school can assist local school staffs in planning their in-service programs and in making resource materials and personnel available for use in the program.

Teachers in the area of the teacher education institution can make planned visits to the campus school for conferences with the supervising teachers and for observing the use of new instructional materials and methods. The activities of the campus school in these areas of responsibility challenges the staff to evaluate its program continuously and tends to

make it a better school for children and to improve its effectiveness as a professional laboratory for prospective teachers.

UNIQUE ADVANTAGES OF THE CAMPUS SCHOOL AS A PROFESSIONAL LABORATORY. The campus laboratory school is in a strategic position to provide many significant professional laboratory experiences for prospective teachers. Because of its central location on the college campus, its facilities are readily available for use by prospective teachers throughout their college careers. It is also readily accessible to college instructors of academic and professional courses, thus contributing to greater integration of the various experiences of students preparing to teach. The educational resources, including facilities and personnel, can be readily exchanged among various departments involved in the program.

Since the campus school is organized and administered by the college, it has freedom to utilize curricular materials and teaching methods in keeping with a sound educational philosophy. The teaching and supervising staffs can be selected in terms of the functions the school decides to emphasize. If student teaching, including observation and demonstration, is its main concern, supervising teachers who are especially skillful in teaching and working with college students can be chosen. If research is the main function, staff members can be selected because of their competence in that area.

Other factors and conditions essential to sound educational research can be controlled. The pupils also can be chosen in terms of the functions of the school. If student teaching is emphasized, the pupils can be selected to constitute a cross-section of the general population. If experimental research is the major activity of the schools, pupils can be selected on an appropriate basis. The campus school is free to make decisions concerning the functions it is to perform.

If the pre-service education of prospective teachers is the major objective, the staff of the school may decide that the more formal experimental type of research is incompatible with that objective, and thus minimize research in the school

by restricting it to some form of action research. However, in its regular teacher education program, the spirit of experimentation should prevail by encouraging the prospective teacher to challenge and question accepted teaching procedures in the light of basic principles of learning and teaching.

The campus school is favorably situated to contribute to a student's readiness for student teaching in both campus and off-campus schools. The planned observations made in the campus school enhance the prospective teacher's understanding of his experiences in the off-campus school. Post-student-teaching experiences can be readily provided in the campus school. After a college student has completed his student teaching, it may be advantageous for him to observe the work of teachers in addition to that of his supervising teachers to gain insight into different approaches to a teaching problem. The campus school provides a suitable environment and facilities for the post-student-teaching seminar for on-campus and off-campus student teachers. The campus school can be a valuable resource for graduate students in connection with some of their courses and research.

Among the practical advantages of the campus school is that of economy of time and finances in the transportation of students for their observation and student teaching. The design and location of the building can be planned by the college in terms of the accepted functions of the school. Facilities for special services such as audio-visual laboratories and speech correction clinics in which prospective teachers observe and work can be included in the planning for the campus school building.

Special features can be incorporated in the campus school building which would not be justified in other school buildings, such as classrooms adapted for student observers, classrooms adapted to the newer teaching techniques, wiring for closed TV circuits, one-way vision booths, conference rooms, and provisions for recording classroom discussions.

SPECIAL PROBLEMS OF THE CAMPUS SCHOOL. The location of the laboratory school on the college campus does not

automatically insure that it will make a significant contribution to a program of teacher education. In its central role in the education of prospective teachers, the campus school must first of all be a good school. In its endeavors to be an effective educative agency, the campus school like all other schools encounters many difficult problems.

Some of the present problems encountered by the campus school arise out of the recent developments in teacher education. The emphasis on a broader concept of professional laboratory experiences has increased the demand upon the campus school to provide opportunities for prospective teachers to obtain laboratory experiences of greater scope and variety than in the past. The increasing number of college students preparing to teach has overtaxed the facilities of many campus schools. The addition of graduate programs in a large number of teachers colleges has made it necessary for campus schools to modify their services to meet the requirements of graduate students engaged in intensive studies of various phases of the school program. The graduate program and the preparation of teachers for special services in the schools, such as guidance and counseling and programs for exceptional children, have not only increased the number of college students to be served but also have made it necessary for the campus school to offer a very diversified program of professional laboratory experiences. As the role of the regular classroom expands, the scope of learning experiences included in a program of teacher education must likewise be extended.

One persistent problem of the campus school is that of obtaining adequate financial resources. The limited budgets of the majority of teachers colleges make it impossible for them to make ample provision for the maintenance and operation of the campus school. One of the basic problems in teacher education is that of making the public and members of the profession aware of the importance of adequate financial support of institutions preparing personnel for teaching.

There is, however, another aspect of the financial prob-

lem of the campus school. In some teachers colleges with adequate financial support the allocation of funds to the campus school is inadequate.

Like all schools, the campus school is confronted with constantly rising costs for the construction and maintenance of adequate building facilities. Since it is expected to set an example for other schools to follow in the use of up-to-date teaching equipment and materials, the campus school finds it increasingly difficult to meet the high costs of materials. Many campus schools have been unable to expand their facilities to provide student teaching opportunities for the increasing numbers of students enrolled in their colleges.

The inadequacy of the campus school budget is often reflected in lower salaries of its administrative and teaching staff in comparison with other members of the college faculty. In a growing number of public schools, teachers' salaries are higher than teachers of comparable training and experience in the campus school, thereby making it more difficult for the latter school to attract and hold competent teachers on its staff. The problem of professional status for the campus school staff, however, goes beyond the matter of salaries. Many campus school teachers are not afforded equal professional recognition with other members of the college faculty. This situation is revealed in the difficulty of members of the campus school staff in attaining professional rank and membership on policy-making committees of the college. Moreover, the responsibilities of the teacher in the campus school, however challenging, are complex and difficult. As a classroom teacher he has a responsibility to the pupils in his classes. He occupies a key position in the total education program of prospective teachers who observe and do their student teaching under his supervision.

Another responsibility of the campus laboratory school teacher is in the area of professional relations with other members of the teacher education staff of the college. His leadership role in professional organizations and in-service education programs of teachers in his state makes many exacting demands upon time and energy. The employment

and retention of teachers who are competent to discharge this multitude of important responsibilities is an ever-present problem of the campus school.

The selection of the student body of the campus school in terms of its function may present a difficult problem. If the main function is to provide facilities for observation and student teaching, the pupils enrolled in the school should constitute a fairly representative cross-section of the general population. If experimental research is the chief function, the pupils should be selected in terms of the type of research to be conducted. However, the educational needs of pupils in the experimental school must be taken into account. If proper precautions are taken, the campus school can conduct experimental research without jeopardizing the educational achievement of its pupils.

The campus school also is confronted with the problem of maintaining a situation sufficiently similar to those in which prospective teachers will teach, to make it possible for them to make the transition from the campus school to other schools without merely perpetuating the "status quo." Developing a program in keeping with sound, forward-looking philosophies within this framework means maintaining a delicate balance between the best of presently accepted and most promising new practices.

OFF-CAMPUS PROFESSIONAL LABORATORY EXPERIENCES

A realistic program of teacher education provides opportunities for students to obtain a wide range of direct experiences with children, youth, and adults in school and community situations. There are some types of professional laboratory experiences that can be obtained on the college campus, others either on or off campus, and several which must, of necessity, be acquired in off-campus situations.

NONSCHOOL COMMUNITY AGENCIES. The observational and participatory activities of a student in the program of a nonschool community agency, under the supervision of the college, is usually referred to as "field experiences." The work with the agency is one form of participation and study

planned to provide the prospective teacher with first-hand knowledge and insights into community living.

Another plan for this purpose consists of an assignment in which a student lives in a community for a period of several weeks while he is engaged in student teaching in the local school (see Chapter 12). While the student is living in the community, he not only fulfills his assignment of observation and student teaching in the school, but also participates in the activities of various other community organizations. The extent and quality of his participation in community affairs is given consideration in the evaluation of his total professional experience.

The quality of a student's work with children and youth in an out-of-school agency is used as a criterion of his readiness for student teaching by some teacher education institutions. The following statement is an illustration of laboratory work with children as a prerequisite for student teaching: ⁸

Laboratory work with children and youth, prerequisite for student teaching. All students who plan to complete a teacher education program in elementary or secondary education in the School of Education of Northwestern University should have pre-student teaching experience with children and youth. These experiences give students first-hand knowledge of how children and youth respond to situations and what their ability levels, attention spans, and interest patterns may be. Students who assume leadership roles in these activities are better able to evaluate their competencies in working with children and the reactions of children to them. The experiences provide a means through which theory courses become more meaningful, personality values are accentuated, and exploratory experiences are provided.

Suggested activities are counseling, supervising, and teaching children and youth who are organized in Bible schools, on playgrounds, in Sunday School classes, "Y" groups, Boy and Girl Scouts, Cub Scouts, Brownies, Community Houses, individually formed groups, etc.

Ideally a student preparing to teach should have direct experiences with two or more community agencies. Priority should be given to youth-serving agencies whose membership

⁸ Announcement of the School of Education for the Academic Year, 1959-60 (Evanston: Northwestern University) p. 39.

is composed of different ages or levels of maturity. In addition to responsible participation in the activities of two or more agencies, each student should become familiar with the work of other agencies in various areas of community life. Throughout the prospective teacher's college career, he should be encouraged to visit, observe, and in some instances become an active member of several types of organizations, as follows:

1. Health and welfare agencies
2. Service and civic organizations
3. Religious groups
4. Business organizations
5. Social, cultural, and recreational agencies
6. Parents' organizations

The values of direct experiences in community organizations can be enhanced by systematic study in a college course in *Community Life and Problems* in which class study and discussion of many of the topics are supplemented by scientific investigations and research.

ORGANIZATION AND OPERATION OF PROGRAMS OF FIELD EXPERIENCES. The experiences of students in community agencies are planned and conducted cooperatively by the teacher-education institution and the agency involved. The college usually designates a member of its staff as a coordinator of field experiences, who has the responsibility for initiating plans for the use of an agency by students. The coordinator may form an advisory committee composed of members of the college faculty and representative citizens of the community to assist him in setting up objectives of the college program and formulating criteria for evaluating the activities of various agencies in terms of the objectives. The coordinator visits the various agencies to obtain first-hand information concerning their programs. If the program of an agency satisfies the established criteria, a representative of the agency is invited to meet with the coordinator to explore the possibility of assigning students for work with the agency. If a mutual agreement is reached

concerning the nature of the students' responsibilities when they are on assignment at the agency, the representative of the agency is requested to prepare a detailed statement of the objectives and activities of his organization as a guide for students and their advisors in making decisions concerning the students assignment. The coordinator of the program compiles a list of the available qualifying agencies with detailed information concerning each agency.

This list is made available to students and their advisors who make their decisions on the basis of the suitability of a particular program in terms of the student's interests and needs. The orientation of the student to the agency may be given in conjunction with a course in which the objectives, programs, and duties of the volunteer workers are studied and discussed. The nature and length of time of the assignment may vary in terms of a student's previous experience. However, many colleges set a minimum of 100 hours service for all students as the standard. A student may be assigned in summers or during the academic year.

The student usually begins his work with the agency as an observer at the meetings and is gradually given increased responsibilities from assistantship to full leadership duties. He works under the supervision of the agency leader in planning, executing, and evaluating the activities of the group. He also observes and directs the activities of individuals and small groups. He keeps records in which he analyzes and interprets his experiences with the agency as a basis for conferences with his college advisor. In some of these conferences, based upon the advisor's observations of the student's work, the student is guided in evaluating his experiences and making meaningful application to teaching situations.

The agency supervisor briefs the student concerning the program and the membership, assigns him responsibilities, observes his activities, assists in critical analyses of the progress of the program, makes evaluations of the quality of the student's work, and keeps the college informed concerning the student's progress by a series of reports.

VALUES OF COMMUNITY LABORATORY EXPERIENCES. The role of the school can be seen in proper perspective only when it is viewed in the environment of the community it serves. A first-hand knowledge of the interaction of various community agencies provide insight into the forces and organizations which shape community life. The nature and quality of the educational programs of non-school community agencies must be known by teachers in planning school programs to meet the needs of children and youth in a particular community. The intellectual, cultural, and recreational interests of the youth of a community are greatly affected by the opportunities in the community to develop and pursue those interests. Since the programs of youth-serving agencies and religious organizations make a strong impact upon many youths, the teacher needs a clear understanding of the methods these groups use in attaining their objectives as a basis for effective cooperation by the school.

Information concerning the prevailing attitudes and standards of conduct of the adult members of the community provides a basis for understanding the attitudes and overt behavior of youth. It is extremely doubtful that a teacher can discern the attitudes, motivations, and behavior of an adolescent unless he can see the youth against the background of his total community environment.

Meaningful, purposeful involvement of a prospective teacher in community activities offers him numerous opportunities to develop leadership abilities, to understand children and youth in informal group situations, and to gain insight into the impact various institutions have upon young people. The direct experiences gained by a prospective teacher in a position of responsibility with a community agency contribute to his competence in working with individuals and groups. These experiences also provide him with a basis for judging his ability and interest in rendering a high type of social service as a member of the teaching profession.

PROBLEMS IN ADMINISTERING PROGRAMS OF DIRECT EXPERIENCES The values of first-hand experiences in commu-

nity agencies are inherent in the program to only a limited degree. Administering an enterprise that includes different personalities and institutions involves many complex problems. In the development and maintenance of satisfactory community participation plans for their students, teacher education institutions encounter numerous but not necessarily insurmountable difficulties.

Some colleges are located in communities where there are a limited number of organized, nonschool agencies. The small number and poor quality of the programs of some of these agencies make it impossible for the college to provide their students with field experiences of sufficient depth and variety. As more college communities become more populous and as transportation facilities increase, it is likely that more cooperating agencies in the local and adjacent communities will become available for use by these colleges.

While agencies with competent leadership are essential, they constitute only one basis for a sound cooperative program. The college has the responsibility of making provision on their staffs for persons who have the time and ability to work effectively with the cooperating agencies. The duties of the college coordinator and supervisory personnel are time-consuming and exacting. The responsibilities of the college cannot be left to chance or placed in the hands of incompetent persons. The supervisory staff of the college should have enough time to enable each member to have first-hand knowledge of the objectives and activities of each cooperating agency. The members of the college staff should be skillful in the application of the principles of good human relationships in their work with the representatives of the agencies. They should also be familiar with the abilities and needs of students assigned to the agencies. Adequate provisions should be made for the supervision of the work of the students participating in the program. These include visits to students while they are performing various tasks with the agency, individual conferences and group discussions.

In initiating a program of field experiences, the college should be aware of the time and expense involved in its proper operation. On the basis of the results of the programs currently in operation in many colleges, the evidence seems clear that the expenditures of money and faculty time are justified in terms of improved programs of teacher education.

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CHAPTER 12

Student Teaching

Student teaching is generally regarded as an indispensable aspect of programs of pre-service teacher education. It was among the first types of professional laboratory experiences to be incorporated in the professional preparation for teaching and holds high priority as one of the basic elements in present-day programs. In selecting members for their teaching staffs, school superintendents attach considerable importance to the nature and quality of the beginning teacher's record in student teaching. Teachers are practically unanimous in the opinion that student teaching was the most valuable experience in their pre-service education programs.

OBJECTIVES OF STUDENT TEACHING PROGRAMS

As one of the culminating phases of a program of pre-service teacher education, the period of student teaching provides an opportunity for the prospective teacher to clarify and reinforce his professional purposes. A strong commitment to teaching is an essential central theme around which a student may integrate the knowledge and experiences he has acquired in other aspects of his teacher preparatory work.

The integrating function of student teaching can be achieved more readily by involving the student in the total task of the teacher. Through participation in various school activities, the student teacher gains a deeper understanding

of the role of the school and how the principles of educational psychology, philosophy, and sociology serve as a basis for educational practice.

Other objectives of student teaching pertain to the development of specific teaching skills. Those considered most important include the following:

1. Creating and maintaining a classroom situation favorable for the learning, mental health, and proper conduct of pupils
2. Establishing satisfactory pupil-pupil and pupil-teacher relationships
3. Understanding pupils as one basis for the selection of appropriate instructional materials and methods
4. Utilizing sound techniques in motivating pupils
5. Supervising the study activities of pupils
6. Directing and guiding individual pupil, small-group, and general class activities
7. Using a variety of teaching methods
8. Identifying and providing for individual differences among pupils
9. Diagnosing and assisting pupils to overcome learning difficulties
10. Evaluating pupils' achievement and progress
11. Developing leadership skills in out-of-class student activities
12. Acquiring the ability to cooperate with professional colleagues in various school enterprises
13. Developing interests and skills to work with parents individually and in groups, e.g., in P.T.A. meetings
14. Perfecting skill in participating in community affairs that relate to education

A third group of objectives of student teaching pertains to the development of desirable personal and professional traits. The most effective teaching is by personal example. The importance of a thorough knowledge of subject matter and the possession of professional skills should not be minimized. However, the teacher's personal traits have a strong impact upon pupils. The development of desirable personal qualities is a praise-worthy objective of student teaching.

A student teacher's experiences should contribute to his appreciation of the services of teachers, thereby strengthening his loyalties to his chosen profession. The interest and enthusiasm for teaching manifested by a supervising teacher can well be contagious. The opportunities to render a high type of social service are revealed more clearly to a student teacher as he discovers first-hand how to help individual children and adolescents. Feelings of self-confidence are enhanced by success in directing the learning activities of pupils. Constructive criticisms and suggestions by supervisors motivate the student teacher to analyze his teaching and to seek ways of improving its quality, thereby learning from his experience with a view to modifying it in subsequent situations. Student teaching also may provide a basis for the individual to assess his personal, social, and professional qualities in terms of the requirements for effective teaching.

CHARACTERISTICS OF A SATISFACTORY PROGRAM OF STUDENT TEACHING

In seeking to achieve the numerous objectives of student teaching, individuals and groups responsible for the organization, administration, and supervision of programs of student teaching have formulated various guiding principles to govern their programs. Their experiences in operating student-teaching programs as well as research findings, have provided these professional leaders with a basis for agreement concerning the essentials of a sound program of student teaching. A few of these characteristics about which there is general agreement will be discussed briefly in the following paragraphs.

The major objectives of the student teaching program should be stated in sufficiently specific terms that they may be readily understood by all persons concerned with the program. Student teaching programs involve the cooperative efforts of supervising teachers, teachers of academic subjects, professional education instructors, and school administrators. A clear understanding of the objectives of the program by all these persons is essential in selecting materials and plan-

ning procedures to achieve their common goal. Aims expressed in general terms are susceptible to different interpretations by various individuals and may result in confusion and ineffectual efforts. When the statements of general aims are broken down into specific objectives, a sound basis is established for decisions concerning points of emphasis and other procedural matters. Ideally the aims should be formulated cooperatively by all the persons responsible for conducting the program.

Areas of professional responsibility of the various members of the administrative and supervisory staff should be clearly defined. The duties of individual members and the extent and nature of the cooperative endeavors of the staff should be indicated. The organizational pattern should be stated in broad outline, permitting some flexibility for the special competence of a member of the staff in dealing with a particular problem. However, there is danger of overlapping responsibilities and misunderstandings, as frequently occurs in supervisory programs in public schools, unless each member of the staff understands his area of responsibility and service.

Provision should be made for the orientation of the student teacher to the program. The student should be provided early in his college career with information about the requirements and procedures for admission to the program. He needs general information on the conditions under which student teaching is done. He should be informed about the opportunities and responsibilities of student teaching and how he can prepare himself to meet these responsibilities. The orientation of the student can be facilitated by the use of college handbooks, individual and group conferences, and through instruction in college classes.

The student teaching experience should be challenging and satisfying to the prospective teacher. The quality of the classroom activities should be sufficiently high to challenge the student teacher to put forth his best efforts in meeting his responsibilities as a participating member of the group. In the spirit of adventure which characterizes a person in a

new role, it is relatively easy for the student teacher to view his experiences as a series of problem-solving activities which call for analysis, action, and evaluation of the results of his actions. He has the right to expect assistance and guidance in evaluating his work and overcoming his difficulties.

Feelings of satisfaction can be fostered by opportunities for success in some of his undertakings, small as they may be in the beginning, as a member and leader of the class. The supervising teacher can contribute a great deal to the student's feelings of security by making him feel that he is wanted as part of the team engaged in an exciting learning experience.

A student teaching program should be so organized and administered as to protect the best interests of pupils in the school. The curriculum and teaching procedures in the school should be in keeping with sound principles of learning. The academic preparation and other pre-student teaching experiences of the college student should be such as to insure his readiness for student teaching. It is usually advisable for the student and his advisors to plan his program cooperatively. The various aspects of his work with pupils should be intelligently guided and carefully supervised by competent persons. Various studies of the effect of student teaching upon the achievement of pupils have revealed that the work of student teachers in a properly conducted program actually improves the learning situation for pupils.

The student teaching experience should be sufficiently long and continuous to enable the student to develop basic understandings and skills in working with individual pupils, pupil groups, professional colleagues, and parents. The length of time necessary to achieve this objective varies from one student teacher to another. Unfortunately it is easier to administer a program of student teaching on the assumption that all prospective teachers should devote the same amount of time to student teaching. State certification laws also encourage a considerable degree of uniformity in student teaching requirements.

Despite individual differences among prospective teachers, it requires considerable time for the great majority of them to acquire the techniques for understanding and working with children and youth. Anything less than sustained work with young people in various situations over a considerable period of time may result in misinterpretation of their learning needs. The acquisition of the skills necessary to perform a task as complex and significant as teaching requires much time. Recognition of this fact is indicated by plans, such as the block semester, which make it possible for a student teacher to devote concentrated periods of time to student teaching.

The program should be sufficiently broad and varied to involve the student teacher actively in the major instructional and non-instructional activities of the teacher. In planning a wide range of activities for the student teacher, due consideration should be given to the depth of experiences. The main emphasis should be placed upon directing pupils' classroom learning activities which are the major responsibility of the teacher. The student teaching assignment of a prospective high school teacher might well include teaching in both major and minor subject fields to different groups of pupils.

Participation in related activities should be selected and planned to complement and reinforce the work of directing classroom activities. Since there are numerous activities related to classroom teaching, a program of student teaching that embraces and emphasizes even a part of them is quite broad in scope. Participation in the guidance activities of the school, cooperative planning of various school programs with other teachers, and out-of-class activities of individual pupils represent some of the types of activities which complement the classroom work of the teacher. Other related activities which may contribute to the student teacher's understanding of children, school problems, and community conditions include attendance and participation in departmental and general faculty meetings, Parent-Teacher Asso-

ciation meetings; and working with community youth agencies, service clubs, welfare agencies, religious organizations, and recreational groups (see Chapter 11).

Student teaching should be adjusted to the abilities, experiences, and needs of the individual student teacher. The same principles which underlie provisions in elementary and secondary schools for individual differences among pupils apply in programs of student teaching. The experiences of different student teachers should be varied with respect to time requirements and the nature of the activities in which they engage. Some students require a very gradual induction into the responsibilities of teaching; whereas others, because of previous experience, professional interest, personal maturity, or other factors, acquire a readiness for teaching much more rapidly. The length of time and the experience necessary to attain a high degree of teaching proficiency also vary widely.

The type of professional services the student is preparing to perform should also be taken into account. A student preparing to be a teacher in a self-contained elementary-school classroom or a core-curriculum teacher in a junior high school not only needs a different pattern of academic and professional courses from that required of a teacher of one subject in a senior high school, but also a different series of professional laboratory experiences. Again, the type of professional experiences needed by high-school teachers of academic subjects varies somewhat from that of teachers of special subjects.

Differentiated programs of student teaching require that colleges develop more adequate measures of competencies for prospective teachers. Variations in the minimum requirements in student teaching for certification would require the approval of state certification authorities.

Regulations governing the program should be administered in a spirit of permissiveness which fosters student initiative, resourcefulness, and independence. Unquestioned acceptance and conformity to existing conditions are deadly

to individual personality development and social progress. The student teacher should have the freedom to question, to test his theories, and to modify accepted teaching procedures. Along with this freedom should go full responsibility for his actions. The teaching profession is in great need of resourceful members who have the courage and vision to pioneer in finding solutions to the complex problems of public education. The student-teaching experience can make an important contribution to the development of this type of educational leadership.

ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF STUDENT TEACHING PROGRAMS

As colleges have expanded their programs of student teaching, it has become necessary to increase the size of the staff responsible for administration and supervision. The staffs of many teacher-education institutions include a director and one or more associate directors of student teaching, college supervisors, and supervising teachers.

DIRECTOR OF STUDENT TEACHING. This assignment should be a full-time position, except possibly in very small colleges. Since this is a key position, the person occupying it should have a broad background of teaching experience and have special training in the areas of curriculum, instruction, and supervision. He should be skillful in establishing and maintaining effective professional relationships with students, supervising teachers, college instructors, and public school administrators.

With a wide range of responsibilities as the coordinator of the total program, the director:

1. Makes recommendations to the college administration for the appointment of members of the student teaching staff
2. Prepares a financial budget for the student teaching program
3. Serves as liaison person between the School of Education and subject-matter departments

4. Formulates principles and policies of the program in cooperation with college and school supervisory personnel
5. Visits and approves public schools as cooperating centers for student teaching
6. Approves the appointment of supervising teachers recommended by the principal of the off-campus school
7. Cooperates with the director of the campus laboratory school in formulating policies governing the observation and student teaching of college students
8. Conducts individual conferences, group meetings, and in-service workshops to orient supervising teachers to student teaching program
9. Serves as chairman of the college committee on the selection of students for student teaching
10. Provides each supervising teacher with personal data and professional status information concerning student teachers assigned to him or her
11. Assigns student teachers to schools and in some instances to classes
12. Orients students to student teaching by means of individual conferences, group meetings, and by use of a student teachers' handbook
13. Makes periodic and final evaluations of the work of student teachers in cooperation with other members of his supervisory staff
14. Keeps permanent record files of student teachers
15. Cooperates with college placement bureau officials in obtaining teaching positions for students completing their student teaching
16. Assists in making follow-up studies of former student teachers

ASSOCIATE DIRECTORS. Colleges which have large numbers of students preparing to become teachers find it advisable to employ one or more associate directors of student teaching to assist the director. These associate directors usually assume responsibility for particular groups of students. One of them may be assigned to work with students preparing to teach in elementary school, another may assist with supervising prospective secondary-school teachers, and

if the college assigns a considerable number of student teachers to schools off the campus, a third associate director may be appointed to supervise the program in those schools. In terms of their special training and experience these persons are usually delegated rather full responsibility for their groups of students.

COLLEGE SUPERVISORS. Teacher-education institutions usually assign several members of their faculties as supervisors of student teaching. If the college maintains a campus school, the teachers in that school may serve in this capacity. General or subject area college supervisors are employed to supervise students assigned to off-campus cooperating schools. In some multipurpose colleges and universities there has been a trend recently to make joint appointments to the staffs of departments of education and subject-matter departments. These professors supervise the student teaching of prospective high-school teachers and usually teach the special methods of teaching course in their respective fields of specialization. The holders of these joint appointments are chosen on the basis of their knowledge of their subject-matter fields and competence in professional education. There is increasing acceptance of the idea that this type of organization improves the quality of supervision and also results in closer cooperation between the department or college of education and the various subject-matter departments.

SUPERVISING TEACHERS. The supervisory teacher is a regular teacher in the laboratory school in whose class or classes and under whose supervision the college student does his student teaching. The quality of the student-teaching program depends more upon the supervising teacher than upon any other member of the teacher education staff. It is essential that he possess nobility of character and a strong dedication to teaching. His minimum professional qualifications should include: a broad general and professional education, as represented by at least a master's degree; at least three years of highly successful teaching experience in the subject or at the grade level for which he has the responsibility of

supervision; skill in teaching and supervision; and a strong interest in directing the work of student teachers.

Some of the specific ways in which the supervising teacher can assist the student teacher are by:

1. Orienting him to the school, its philosophy, program, and facilities
2. Helping him become acquainted with the class situation, including the pupils, the course of study, and the available instructional resources
3. Helping him develop rapport with members of the class
4. Gradually inducting the student teacher into classroom activities by giving him responsibilities in (a) classroom routines; (b) keeping class register; (c) analysis of lesson plans; (d) analysis of lessons taught; (e) assembling resource instructional materials; (f) working with individual pupils; and (g) conducting class activities in a discussion of a limited aspect of some topic or unit
5. Demonstrating methods and techniques of directing the learning activities before assigning the student teacher to teach the class
6. Conducting pre-planning conferences to assist the student teacher in formulating his plans for teaching the class
7. Maintaining an attitude of permissiveness while the student is teaching rather than one of obvious critical watching and checking
8. Conducting post-teaching conferences to analyse the results of his teaching and to consider further plans
9. Providing opportunities for the student teacher to participate in the extracurricular activities of the class
10. Making written evaluations of the student teacher's effectiveness

Professional status of the supervising teacher. The supervising teacher in a campus laboratory school should be eligible to attain the highest professional rank in the college with the privileges attendant to his rank, such as: tenure, sabbatical leaves, and participation in retirement plans. He should have the opportunity to serve on campus school, departmental, and college committees. He should

have the privilege of attending and voting at college faculty meetings. His teaching load and salary should be determined on the same basis as that used for other members of the college teaching staff.

COOPERATING SCHOOL PERSONNEL. Members of the staff of schools cooperating with institutions of higher learning to provide off-campus laboratories for student teaching have customarily been designated cooperating teachers. In small school systems the superintendent or associate superintendent in charge of instruction may represent the school in formulating policies governing student teaching in their schools. Many principals of these schools plan their administrative and supervisory schedules to enable them to conduct individual conferences with student teachers assigned to their schools, and occasionally observe their teaching.

One of the responsibilities of the coordinator of instruction in a large school system is acting as a liaison person between the school and the teacher-education institution. His supervising duties may consist of conferring with individual student teachers concerning their qualifications and teaching preferences, assigning them to classes, encouraging them to attend orientation meetings conducted for probationary teachers in the school, and conferring with cooperating teachers regarding the student teachers' progress.

As in the campus school, the teacher in whose classes the student teacher works, is the key person in the program. The supervisory duties of the cooperating teacher in the public school are quite similar to those of the supervising teacher in the campus school.

The matter of suitable professional recognition and status for the cooperating teacher is an unresolved issue in many colleges. Despite general agreement that the college should give due recognition to the important services of the cooperating teacher, the regulations of boards of trustees and limited finances of many colleges have made it difficult to solve the problem.

Measures have been taken recently to give due, even though belated, recognition to the contribution of the coop-

erating teacher. Among these measures are: listing the name of the teacher as an associate member of the college faculty, financial compensation, scholarships, use of various college facilities, privilege of participating in college health insurance plans, and various other fringe benefits.

The assumption of greater responsibility for programs of student teaching by cooperating public schools is one of the critical needs in teacher education. The underlying premise is that practicing members of the profession should contribute more extensively to the internship, or laboratory preparation, of future teachers. A step in this direction which is being urged and tried in some sections of the country involves the provision of state aid to school systems which help to prepare prospective teachers. Such assistance is advocated as a means of reducing the teaching loads of cooperating teachers to permit them more time to work with student teachers.

PLANS FOR STUDENT TEACHING

Student teaching was regarded formerly as only one in a series of courses the prospective teacher was required to take. The predominant type of student teaching assignment was limited to observing and teaching one class period per day during a college semester in a campus school or a nearby public school. The acceptance of a broader concept of student teaching to include experiences in the total task of the teacher has resulted in the development of plans for one-half- or full-day assignments for periods of several weeks. This arrangement is often called the "block plan" or "block quarter" or "block semester" because the entire period must be scheduled as a block to permit full-time student teaching for a period of weeks. Under this plan the students take courses during the first eight weeks of a semester and then do their student teaching on a full-time basis for a similar period. Upon the completion of their teaching, the students return to the campus for a two- or three-day seminar on teaching. These longer, continuous assignments may be in off-campus cooperating schools and/or campus schools.

OFF-CAMPUS COOPERATING SCHOOLS

On the basis of the nature of the agreement between the teacher education institution and the off-campus school and the extent of the latter's use for student teaching, there are three types of cooperative plans: the *continuing*, the *cooperating center*, and the *occasional cooperating school* plans.

THE CONTINUING COOPERATIVE PLAN. Many colleges enter into agreements with local or nearby public schools to use these schools for observation and student teaching. Formerly only teacher-education institutions without campus laboratory schools entered into these agreements. More recently many colleges that maintain campus schools arrange for their students to do student teaching in both campus and public schools. Agreements between the college and the local school may be verbal or a more formal written contract. In either case, the areas of responsibility of the two agencies should be clearly defined.

The close proximity of the local cooperating school to the campus offers several advantages. Mutual understanding of objectives and procedures between the school authorities and the persons in the college who administer the program is relatively easy to achieve because of the first-hand knowledge each group has of the other's program. As problems arise, individual and group conferences between the representatives of the two agencies can readily be arranged. The use of local school facilities for student teaching also results in economies to the college. The financial compensation and fringe benefits to the teachers and/or the local school board by the college represent a small fraction of the cost of maintaining its own facilities.

There are various other problems involved in the use of local schools for student teaching. A college located in a small community may find it necessary to assign more student teachers to a cooperating teacher than can be properly supervised. In a small school with a limited number of teachers it may be necessary to assign some student teachers to teachers who are not the most competent in teaching or

in supervision, or both. To provide observational and student teaching experiences for all its students, the teacher-education institution may have to curtail the amount of time each student devotes to these activities. The fear of too much domination of the public school by the college has created an unfavorable climate of public opinion toward cooperation in some college communities. In seeking to avoid this reaction, some colleges have adopted a completely "hands off" policy to the detriment of the quality of the teacher-education program.

These problems point up the weakness of "nearness to the campus" as the sole criterion for the selection of a cooperating school. Other more significant criteria are: the quality of instruction, the excellence of particular teachers, the prevailing philosophy, and the interest the school shows in helping prepare teachers. In an endeavor to establish more satisfactory working relationships with the local schools, one university has formed a joint advisory committee composed of the university director of student teaching, two university supervisors, the director of instruction in the public schools, and two cooperating teachers. This committee meets periodically to study mutual problems arising in the student teaching program. One of the projects of the committee has been the preparation of a student teaching handbook which outlines the philosophy and policies of the joint program. Courses and seminars in the supervision of student teachers offered by the college for cooperating teachers also have been useful in improving the quality of the program.

COOPERATING CENTER PLAN. Under this plan a college enters into an agreement with one or more of the larger school systems in the state, usually at some distance from the campus, to provide student teaching facilities for its students. A member of the college faculty is designated as the coordinator. He lives in the public school community and devotes full-time to supervising the students who are assigned by the college to do student teaching in the schools of the center.

The students assigned to the center live in the community while engaged in student teaching on a full-time basis for

one-half or an entire college semester. The coordinator assigns the student teachers to the schools and together with cooperating teachers in the schools supervises the student teaching by classroom visits, individual conferences, group meetings, and seminars.

One of the main advantages of this plan is that while the students are living in the community they may become familiar with and participate in community activities. They also can see the school in the context of community life. A possible limitation is that the coordinator who serves as general supervisor of student teachers of various grade levels and subjects may not always be able to give them the assistance they need in dealing with specific teaching problems. This difficulty may be alleviated somewhat by the assistance of competent supervising teachers in the schools.

THE OCCASIONAL COOPERATING SCHOOL PLAN. Some colleges arrange for students to do their student teaching in different schools in various parts of the state. This arrangement is for a certain specified time, usually one semester, and is made on the basis of the particular needs or convenience of the student. Over a period of years a large number of schools at one time or another may have one or more student teachers assigned to them. The student teachers usually live in the community and devote full time to their assignment for a period of several weeks.

Under certain conditions the occasional cooperating school provides an excellent situation for student teaching. It should be a superior school with competent administrators and teachers who are interested in supervising student teachers. The attitude of the people of the community also should be favorable to the program. As a result of experiences in this type of student teaching the prospective teachers learn to adjust to new environments and become working members of a school and community. Since in most instances only a few student teachers are assigned to a school at any given time, it is possible for them to be integrated easily into the activities of the school. The "college-student" attitude of student teachers which may exist in a campus school is more likely to be dispelled in an off-campus

school in which the pupils and teachers accept them as members of the teaching staff of the school.

Developing and maintaining effective working relationships between the college and cooperating schools is a particularly acute problem under this arrangement for the student teaching. The college should provide leadership in establishing good relationships through personal visits to the schools by college personnel and in conferences with administrators and teachers. Conferences and social functions at the college help promote rapport with cooperating school teachers. Workshops conducted by representatives of the college and school contribute to mutual understanding of the philosophy and procedures of the joint program.

The college is obligated to provide adequate supervision of the student teachers assigned to the school. Regardless of the competence of the cooperating teachers, the college should assist in supervising its student teachers. An occasional visit to the school by a college supervisor will not suffice. Standards advocated by the Wisconsin Committee on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, for example, specify that the college supervisor should visit, observe, and confer with the student teacher a minimum of ten hours during the period of the assignment to a cooperating school. The best interests of the student teachers and the school can be served only when there is close, continuous cooperation between the two agencies in all phases of the program.

The willingness of greater numbers of public schools to share responsibility with colleges for the preparation of teachers is one of the most encouraging recent developments in teacher education programs. Colleges should strive to make these cooperative programs mutually beneficial to both agencies.

THE CAMPUS SCHOOL AS A STUDENT TEACHING FACILITY

The extensive use of the off-campus school as a facility for student teaching has not decreased the importance of the campus laboratory school in teacher education. Rather, it has increased the contribution which the campus school can

make to pre-student-teaching observation and to experimentation and demonstration. The majority of campus schools are utilized for student teaching, and in practically all of them college students participate in activities closely related to student teaching. The observations and other contacts with pupils in campus schools by prospective teachers contribute to their readiness for student teaching. The campus school also is useful as a post-student-teaching facility in which students gain deeper insight into their previous experiences as student teachers. A few teacher education institutions make provision for each student to do part of his student teaching in the campus school and part in cooperating public schools.

Many of the advantages and limitations of the campus school as a professional laboratory (described in Chapter 11) are relevant for use in student teaching. The close interdepartmental working relationships between the staff of the school and various divisions of the college are useful in helping the student to integrate his experiences as a student teacher with his regular college work. These relationships can be promoted by the campus school holding open house to permit members of other departments to observe the work of the pupils and student teachers. Discussions in interdepartmental meetings may contribute to mutual understanding of the different programs. The location of the school on the campus makes it convenient for students to utilize its facilities and services. The economy of time and expense in supervising student teachers assigned to the campus school in comparison with those in off-campus schools makes it possible for college supervisors to give students more assistance on the basis of continuous study and evaluation of their specific teaching problems.

Since the quality of the student teaching program is determined in large measure by the supervisory staff, the campus school is in a particularly favorable position to maintain a high-quality program. Appointments to the staff are made with reference not only to skill in teaching but with particular consideration to an individual's scholarship abil-

ity and interest in supervising the work of prospective teachers. Supervising teachers in the campus school have the opportunity to become familiar with the needs and problems of prospective teachers as the basis for planning student teaching experiences which are most likely to contribute to their professional growth.

The success of the college in attracting and retaining outstanding persons on the campus school faculty is dependent upon its ability and willingness to make these positions desirable financially and professionally. Under intelligent leadership the campus school has the freedom to test and demonstrate new ideas concerning the curriculum and teaching procedures. The opportunity afforded prospective teachers to observe and use forward-looking teaching procedures is especially important in improving schools generally.

A distinct limitation of the campus school as a facility for student teaching is that it is usually not located in a typical community. Thus the student teacher may find it difficult to see his work in its true relation to the community unless provision is made for him to supplement his teaching experience by participation in community activities in other situations.

Facilities for observation of students in the campus school are frequently over-taxed, especially in colleges which require their students to make observations in conjunction with their college classes and student teaching. Educational television as used in San Jose State College may be one answer to this problem. Two elementary schools, one junior high school, and one senior high school are equipped to televise classroom activities to San Jose State College for classes in psychology, child growth and development, librarianship, and teacher education. These programs are also used to extend the phases of student-teacher training that were formerly based on classroom observation.¹

¹ J. Burton Vasche, "The Emerging Role of Television in Teacher Education," *California Schools* (Sacramento, California State Dept. of Education), 30, No. 4 (April, 1959), p. 154.

A teacher-education institution which regards student teaching as one of the major functions of its campus school should adopt selection procedures to insure that the pupils constitute a representative *cross-section* of the general population. The enrollment in the school should be sufficiently large to organize the program in terms of the abilities and needs of pupils. Conant's² recommendation that there should be a minimum of 100 pupils in the high school graduating class, could well apply to the campus school as well as the public school. If the teacher education program of the college is designed to prepare students for teaching in elementary and high schools, all grades from kindergarten to the twelfth grade, inclusive, should be included in the campus school.

SELECTION OF STUDENT TEACHERS

Faculties of teacher-education institutions are in agreement that despite endeavors to devise quality curricula and *professional laboratory experiences for prospective teachers*, their efforts will be impaired as long as the best minds and personalities among college students are not attracted to teaching while "the halt, the sick, and the blind," mentally and physically, are permitted to destroy by their inefficiency the precious heritage of youth. There has been some question as to whether a college supported at public expense has the legal right to withhold from any student the privilege of preparing to teach. However, at present the point of view prevails that in making professional education available to a student, the state or college must be more interested in the development of a professional service than it is in the individual and his alleged rights to such training.

In some teacher education institutions which have autonomy, the selection of students is made prior to their enrollment in the college. *Many colleges postpone the decision until after some information is available concerning the student's college work.*

² James B. Conant, *The American High School Today* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1959), pp. 77-85.

UNIVERSITY OF COLORADO PLAN FOR SELECTING STUDENT TEACHERS. The plan developed at the University of Colorado illustrates the current trend toward organizing faculty resources and procedures for selecting the students to be admitted to student teaching. The University is a multipurpose educational institution in which the education of teachers is regarded as an all-university function. An All-University Council on Teaching, composed of representatives of all the departments and colleges of the University whose majors prepare for teaching, serves in an advisory capacity to the School of Education. Upon the recommendation of the Council, the president of the University appointed a committee to formulate a plan for the selection of students for student teaching. The committee was comprised of the Director of Student Teaching and nine members representing the departments and colleges of the University most directly concerned with teacher education.

Procedures in selection. The following is a brief outline of the plan of selection for student teaching:

1. In the student's sophomore year, while he is enrolled in *Educational Psychology*, he is given a group personality test. Personality traits which are considered important for effective teaching are: emotional stability, self-control, adaptability, self-sufficiency, dominance, sociability, as revealed by the personality tests. The information obtained by the test score is supplemented in the case of some students by counseling interviews—before the student's application for student teaching is approved.
2. During the student's junior year, in the semester he is enrolled in *Introduction to Education*, he fills out a personal information sheet. The student reports his extraclass activities, experience in working with children, work experience, and why he is interested in teaching. The filing of this form is considered as an indication of the student's intention to prepare for teaching in the elementary or high schools.
3. After the student has declared his intention to teach, he takes a *Speech Adequacy Test* administered by the mem-

bers of the Division of Speech in the Department of English. In the event the student has a remediable speech defect, he is required to take a course in speech for teachers or to attend a speech clinic if he wishes to qualify for teaching. More serious speech defects serve as one basis for refusing students admission to teaching.

4. During the student's junior year, his physical fitness for teaching is checked by members of the Student Health Service. A check is made of the student's medical examination at the time of his entrance to the University. Students whose records are questionable are called in for an additional medical examination by university physicians.
5. The committee also assembles the following information on the student during his junior year:
 - a. Psychological test score taken at the time of the student's entrance to the University.
 - b. Proficiency in English language as revealed by the *Student's (sophomore) English Test* score.
 - c. The student's participation in extracurricular activities, leadership experience with youth groups, and his work experience.
6. In the semester the student is enrolled in *Principles of Secondary Education* or in *Elementary Education*, he makes formal application for a student teaching assignment.
7. Approval of the application for student teaching also depends upon the student satisfying the following requirements:
 - a. Senior or graduate status in the University of Colorado by the time he begins his student teaching, with a minimum grade-point average of 2.25.
 - b. A grade average of not less than 2.50 in the student's major teaching field must be maintained. Approval of the student's course work in his major teaching field must be obtained from the University Supervisor of Student Teaching in the student's teaching field.
 - c. A grade-point average of not less than 2.50 in each of the student's minor teaching fields. For distributed studies majors, a grade-point average of 2.50 in each of the two additional subjects he is preparing to teach.

- d. A favorable recommendation from the student's major advisor or department in regard to his fitness for teaching.
 - e. The completion of the prerequisites in Education for student teaching. A grade-point average of at least 2.50 in the prerequisite courses in *Psychology* and *Education* is required.
8. The information on each student making application for student teaching is reviewed by the Committee on Selection of Students for Teaching. Students who fail to meet the minimum requirements as outlined in this plan are advised not to prepare for teaching. Those students who meet the requirements are sent an official notice from the Committee granting them permission to enroll in student teaching during the following semester.

READINESS FOR STUDENT TEACHING

The significance of student teaching as a learning experience for a prospective teacher is largely dependent upon his readiness to engage in the activity in a purposeful, meaningful manner. Purposes are identified when the student is aware of a problem situation and becomes concerned about it. In a program designed to produce readiness for student teaching, opportunities should be provided for the student to acquire a sensitivity to the problems involved in directing the learning activities of pupils.

Information concerning the numerous needs and problems of children and youth which the college student obtains in education courses and professional laboratory situations should cause him to approach his student teaching with a problem-solving attitude. The meaning that he is able to attach to his student teaching experiences is closely associated with the understanding he has acquired in his previous observations and direct experiences in school and community activities. Thus all the aspects of the teacher-education program in which a student has participated should contribute in some manner to his preparation for student teaching. A planned series of experiences just prior to his placement as a student teacher, however, may serve to focus his attention more directly on teaching.

OBSERVATION COURSES. In some teacher-education institutions the prospective student teacher is required to take a course in planned Observation of Teaching prior to his student teaching. In this course, which carries regular college credit, the student studies the techniques of classroom observation, makes a series of observations in the campus or cooperating school, and writes descriptive and analytical reports of his observations as a basis of discussion in the college class.

THE SEPTEMBER FIELD EXPERIENCE. A modified plan for observation and pre-student-teaching participation, usually known as the September Field Experience plan, has been developed in some teacher education institutions. The college obtains permission from each of a number of public schools for one or more of its students who live near the school to observe for two or three weeks in the school, between the opening of the school term and the beginning of Fall semester at the college. Whenever possible the student is assigned to a school other than the one he attended as an elementary- or high-school pupil.

The director of student teaching should provide the local school authorities with information concerning the type of activities in which the college student is expected to engage. The student also should be supplied with a detailed guide of his responsibilities in the school. The student should be expected to keep a log or diary of his activities to be used as a basis of discussions in conferences with his college supervisors. In colleges where the prospective teachers have limited opportunities for contacts with pupils, this can be a valuable experience prior to student teaching.

OTHER MEANS OF PREPARATION. The student also may make other preparation for student teaching. Under the guidance of a college supervisor, the student may make an intensive study of the objectives, curriculum, teaching methods, and facilities of the school in which he is to be assigned as a student teacher. Classroom visits should be made for the purpose of obtaining first-hand information concerning the activities of pupils. The student should

meet with the school administrator and the supervising teacher with whom he is to work. Using the information he obtains from his contacts in the school, the prospective student teacher can formulate some preliminary plans in the form of resource materials to be used in his teaching.

ACADEMIC READINESS. Formerly the emphasis in ascertaining a student's readiness for student teaching was principally, if not entirely, on his academic preparation. Along with experiential readiness for student teaching, academic readiness is important. Minimum standards in terms of general education, knowledge of a teaching field, and the quality of work in professional education should be established and enforced. Social maturity is another important aspect of readiness for student teachers. Many school boards insist that a college student must have attained senior status before he can be assigned as student teacher in their school. The attainment of a certain chronological age and a certain college status is not a guarantee of social maturity, but in many instances it is a fairly reliable index.

ACTIVITIES OF STUDENT TEACHERS

The various types of information needed in the selection of students for student teaching also are useful in planning and supervising their student teaching activities. If a sufficient amount of pertinent information about students is assembled, it will be evident that they vary greatly in abilities, experiential background, professional objectives, and needs. Some students may be able to bring their previous preparation in college courses and professional laboratory experiences readily into focus with their student teaching. Other students, however, encounter difficulty in seeing the different facets of the teacher-education program as the components of an integrated total pattern. Thus the assistance and direction needed by student teachers differ widely in nature as well as in quality and extent.

Despite individual differences among student teachers, there are certain activities in which all of them may profitably engage. The majority, if not all, student teachers should be inducted gradually into full teaching responsibili-

ties. Four phases characterize a program in which provision is made for the student teacher to engage in a series of increasing teaching responsibilities.

FIRST PHASE: ORIENTATION. In this phase of student teaching, the student's main purpose is to become oriented to the classroom situation. This involves getting acquainted with the pupils' learning abilities, interests, and educational needs. Understanding of pupils can be acquired by observing their reactions in the classroom and in informal student activities. Much pertinent information concerning pupils can be obtained by a careful study and interpretation of their cumulative school records, followed by case studies of some depth for a limited number of pupils. The main emphasis in this phase of the student teacher's work should be in acquiring an understanding of the characteristics and typical reactions of pupils in the age bracket represented by the class, as well as the nature, extent, and possibly the cause of individual deviations from the norm.

In his conferences with the supervising teacher, the student teacher should gain an understanding of the objectives of the course, the instructional materials, the basis of evaluating pupil achievement and progress, matters of classroom routine, and the teacher's role in related school activities. Observation of the teacher's activities should give him an insight into the relationship between teaching theory and practice. He should be able to ascertain the relative effectiveness of different methods of teaching in terms of pupil's motivation and achievement. In his observations, he should give special attention to the supervising teacher's procedures in winning the respect and cooperation of pupils.

Other forms of classroom participation include: making seating charts; checking pupil attendance; helping pupils with special problems, such as make-up work; working with individuals or small groups on special projects; reading examination papers; and participating occasionally as a member of the group in class discussions.

SECOND PHASE: LIMITED TEACHING. After the student teacher has become reasonably well oriented to the class situation, he should be given some limited teaching respon-

sibilities. A few of these activities may include: assisting in the supervised study of pupils; giving a special report on some aspect of a unit; acting as an advisor for a small group of pupils engaged in the study of a problem; discussing test results with individual pupils and the class; cooperative planning with the supervising teacher of subsequent instructional units on the basis of past and present pupil performance; suggesting and directing remedial instruction for individual pupils; assembling supplementary instructional materials for use by the class; assisting in home room, club work, and assembly programs; attending P.T.A. meetings; and participating in student-teacher group meetings conducted by college supervisors.

THIRD PHASE: TOTAL TEACHING RESPONSIBILITY. After the student has engaged successfully in several or all the activities suggested in preceding phases of student teaching, he should be able to assume full responsibility for teaching a topic or unit. The time and number of teaching assignments will vary in terms of how promptly he becomes proficient in the earlier phases of the work. The amount of actual teaching will depend upon the student's progress and need, with due consideration to the pupils' welfare. Before he teaches a unit, he should have a pre-planning conference with the supervising teacher, prepare a detailed plan for the unit, discuss the plan with the teacher, and make a final revision before using it. The student should perform all the duties of a teacher incident to teaching a unit, including making assignments, preparing pupil work-sheets, assembling source materials; conducting class discussions; directing pupils' activities in the culminating stages of the unit, including the construction and administration of tests.

Upon the completion of the unit, a post-teaching conference should be held between the student and his supervising teacher. In the conference a critical analysis should be made of the student's teaching, and plans should be formulated for his future work. Many colleges make self-rating sheets available to the student to be filled out by him after he has taught a unit, thus enabling him to give consideration to the various items involved in the teaching process.

During this phase of student teaching, the college supervisor should observe some of the student's teaching. These classroom visits should be followed by individual conferences between the student and the supervisor to discuss the student's teaching. The college supervisor usually conducts group meetings with student teachers while they are engaged in teaching.

The student teacher may be asked to conduct field trips, work with faculty committees, attend faculty meetings, counsel individual students, and visit the homes of pupils. This phase of the work may close with a recapitulation of the student's work in which the student, his supervising teacher, and college supervisor participate in considering points of strength and weakness. These discussions may assist the student in intellectualizing his experiences and provide increased insight into his work as a teacher.

FOURTH PHASE: MULTIPLE ASSIGNMENTS. In this phase the student teacher may spend a brief time observing teaching in an entirely different school situation. If his student teaching has been in a campus school, an assignment to an off-campus school may be useful in providing an understanding of the relation of the school and the community and experience in community living. Post-student-teaching seminars, conducted by the college supervisory staff, are becoming increasingly popular as a final culminating activity. In this seminar, the student may be asked to submit a written report of his student-teaching experience as a basis of a critical analysis of his work and the student-teaching program.

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CHAPTER 13

Certification, Placement, and Follow-up

Certification requirements, placement practices, and follow-up procedures are related in varying degrees to programs of teacher preparation. Of the three, certification regulations have no doubt exercised the greatest amount of control over the nature of programs and the quality of teachers produced. To the extent that placement of teachers is seen as a function of institutions which prepare teachers, and to the degree that this service in colleges and universities is integrally related to programs of preparation, placement bears an important role in assisting teachers to succeed. Likewise, it can contribute to the evaluation of strengths and weaknesses of the institution's program.

Like certification and placement practices, follow-up activities may be a part of teacher education. Involved here are the responsibilities for helping prospective teachers to make a successful transition from pre-service programs to full-time employment. In theory, follow-up has been endorsed as an important aspect of the program of teacher education; in practice, it is often given very little attention by colleges and universities.

States Association, the Southern Association, the North Central Association, and the Northwest Association. These associations, like the states and federal government, impose specific requirements with respect to the college work that prospective teachers must take. They also maintain requirements for those in administrative positions in accredited schools.

With the exception of several major cities, as in Chicago, local school boards have generally relinquished responsibility for certification. In some states the school board has authority to grant a temporary license to teach under certain conditions.

Professional associations which certify personnel for work in schools do so in order to control the preparation for technical specialists. The American Psychological Association, for example, admits to membership only those individuals who comply with highly specific programs of graduate and professional preparation. Through this practice, the Association hopes to control admission to practice in such fields as school psychology, testing, and psychological counseling. The American Association of School Administrators now specifies the amount of graduate preparation necessary for eligibility for full membership in the association.² This kind of action influences certification indirectly.

STATUS OF REQUIREMENTS FOR CERTIFICATION. Programs of teacher education are directly influenced by certification requirements imposed by regional accreditation associations and by state departments of public instruction. In general, patterns of certification for both types of agencies tend to be similar with respect to degrees and distribution of courses required for teaching.

Regional requirements. All regional associations require that high-school teachers have earned the bachelor's degree at an accredited institution. The requirements specify that the teacher have included in his college program a broad

² American Association of School Administrators, *The School Administrator*, 15, No. 7 (March-April, 1958) p. 2.

background of work in general or liberal education, a stated minimum amount of preparation in both the major and minor teaching fields and in the area of professional requirements. The Middle States Association defines its standards for certification in general terms. The other four associations specify that a minimum of 12 to 16 hours of work be taken in education courses and both the North Central Association and the Northwest Association require 15 and 12 hours, respectively, in the *minor field to qualify for teaching*. Since regional accrediting associations are concerned only with the standards of work in the high schools and colleges, their regulations do not apply to teachers in elementary schools. They do, however, affect programs of graduate study for administrators, since specific degree and course requirements are maintained for those holding principalships and superintendencies of accredited schools in three of the associations: the North Central, Northwest, and Southern. The North Central and Northwest Associations also maintain specific requirements for high-school librarians.

The Middle States and New England Associations impose no specific requirements upon administrators. The Southern Association specifies that a person exercising control of instruction in an accredited secondary school must have completed the master's degree, including not less than six semester hours of graduate work in education, and the completion of a minimum of two years of experience, and must show evidence of culture and of scholarship in at least one or more academic fields. The Northwest Association requires that administrators must have completed the master's degree or 37 semester hours in graduate work, twenty of which must be in education courses. The North Central Association requires a master's degree in which specific course work must be included in administration and supervision, and proof of two years of successful teaching experience.

State certification requirements. State certification requirements are the legal means employed by a state to guar-

antee that teachers in elementary and secondary schools meet minimum standards of preparation for teaching. They have the strength of licensure since they admit individuals to the profession of teaching and permit them to seek employment. These certification regulations are administered by the state department of public instruction on authority of the state legislature. The State Board of Education or the Superintendent of Public Instruction, depending upon the pattern of organization in a state, is the agent responsible for certification.

State certification requirements control directly programs of teacher education. Institutions which prepare teachers are compelled to offer courses required for teacher certification. Furthermore, degree requirements for prospective teachers must conform to specifications for certification.

State certification requirements usually prescribe the length of programs of preparation and the minimum number of semester course hours which must be allocated to general education, major and minor teaching fields, and to professional education courses. They also specify particular courses that prospective teachers must study, particularly in the pedagogical phase of the program.

All states require the bachelor's degree for high-school teaching certification. Three states, Arizona, California, and New York as well as Washington, D. C., require the completion of the master's degree or a fifth year of study. In 1959 38 of the 50 states required elementary-school teachers to complete the bachelor's degree. In states which permit teachers to be certified with less than four years of college preparation, institutions for teacher education are under compulsion to provide shorter programs of preparation for teaching.

Liberal education requirements. In general the impact of certification regulations upon the college course requirements for the liberal education of teachers is as follows: All states require in one way or another the completion of a distribution of basic academic-field courses for liberal education purposes. Some list the areas in which such courses must be taken and indicate the amount of credit that must be

included in each field. Others simply indicate that the college program must include an "appropriate emphasis" on courses in the liberal arts and sciences. The minimum number of prescribed semester hours ranges from 24 in Delaware, to 77 in Indiana.

Differences in courses required for certificates often prevail between the requirements for elementary- and secondary-school teachers. This is true in all states that require less than four years of college study to teach in elementary schools. Kentucky, for example, requires 69 hours of general education for elementary-school teachers as contrasted to 45 for high-school teachers. Illinois regulations specify from 73 to 79 hours of general education for elementary certification and only 35 for high-school teaching. In part, such differences between requirements in liberal education for elementary- and high-school teachers can be explained by the fact that elementary teachers are expected to complete a distributed major in the subject fields common to the elementary-school curriculum. The courses included in this preparation are often classified as liberal education.

Differences in amount of liberal education required for teacher certification between states are greater than are found for elementary- and secondary-school teachers in the same state. Semester-hour requirements in liberal education by states show, for example, Virginia with a minimum of 36 semester hours; Wyoming, Georgia, and California, each with 40 semester hours; Kansas with 45; Oklahoma with 50; Nebraska with 60; Illinois with 73; Connecticut with 75; and Indiana, 77.

Subject specialization requirements. All states prescribe minimum numbers of course credits which must be earned by prospective high-school teachers in their subject fields of specialization. The minimum varies slightly from state to state, and often differs for various subject fields within the same state. The lowest number of semester hours required for a major teaching field was eight hours for mathematics in Maine in 1955. The highest minimum required in a major field was 36 hours for each of several subjects in the state of California. High-school teachers can teach, however,

in their minor fields of preparation. To gain a true picture of the subject-matter preparation actually required of those permitted to teach, it is necessary to consider the minimum number of semester hours required in the student's second or third teaching fields. The state of Missouri permits teachers to teach mathematics in grades seven to nine with a minimum of nine semester hours of credit, but requires 15 semester hours to teach the subject in grades ten to twelve.

A considerable range of minimum requirements for teaching various fields is reflected in the standards of various states. Arkansas, for example, will certify a teacher to teach mathematics as a minor field with only 15 semester hours of college study in the subject, yet it requires 76 semester hours in agriculture, 68 in home economics, 48 in industrial arts, 25 in physical education, 24 in English, and 18 for certification to teach speech. Connecticut requires a minimum of 18 semester hours in mathematics as contrasted to 30 for English, the social studies, and natural sciences. Missouri requires 15 semester hours in mathematics, grades ten through twelve, compared with 24 in English and social studies.

Although regulations in all states specify the minimum number of hours required in major and minor fields, certification requirements generally do not prescribe the particular courses that must be included to meet the requirements. Some states list the subject fields from which credits can be included to meet major and minor field quotas. Georgia regulations, for example, indicate that the 30 semester hours required in English may be distributed to the following fields: grammar, composition, speech, literature, creative writing, and journalism. Its 20 semester hours required in mathematics may include courses in statistics, accounting, and applied mathematics. Tennessee also makes specific stipulations regarding the allocation of hours required in certain subject areas. Thirty-six hours are required for certification in the general field of social studies which must include the following: history, 12 hours; sociology, 6 hours; economics, 6 hours; government, 6 hours. In the 18 semester hours required in mathematics, Tennessee specifies that

courses in college algebra, trigonometry, and analytical geometry be included.

These are examples of the specificity that prevails in some states in the stipulation of courses required in major and minor fields. Most states, however, simply indicate the minimum number of hours that must be presented for certification and depend upon the training institution to determine the selection. There tends to be a greater prescription of courses in specialized fields such as physical education, agriculture, home economics, music, and industrial arts.

Professional course requirements. In the area of pedagogy, course requirements for certification are more precise than those for liberal arts or subject specialization in most states. Maine, Nebraska, Nevada, New Hampshire, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Rhode Island, and Texas are exceptions. State certification standards dictate both the minimum number of hours in education courses and often list the specific courses that must be studied as well as the number of semester hours, or range of hours, that must be earned in each course. Even when courses are not listed by title, it is common practice in many states to indicate the general area of study in which work must be completed; for example, history, philosophy and program of the school, secondary education, or methods and materials of instruction.

The practice of indicating the title or nature of education courses in which specific amounts of credit must be earned predominates in spite of the fact that pedagogical courses in the undergraduate program have yet to be uniformly standardized for the country. A total of 101 different course titles are listed for the required education courses in the 50 states. This lack of courses-and-titles standardization is reflected in programs of teacher education. In 1915, a study of teacher education programs in universities revealed that for the single course, *student teaching*, 89 universities used 19 different titles.³ Some institutions (for example, the University of Wisconsin) employed different catalogue numbers

³ Lindley J. Stiles, *Pre Service Education of High School Teachers in Universities* (Boulder, Colorado: University of Colorado, Doctoral Dissertation, 1915), pp. 192-95.

and titles to designate student teaching in the various subject fields and at different school levels. Similar variations in titles of other courses required in the professional program can be found. Even greater variety exists in the course titles and content from institution to institution. A sample of these taken from several states includes: psychology, principles and philosophy, materials and methods, study about the school, study about children and learning, study about teaching, the scope and function of the school, growth and development, counseling and guidance, foundations of education, educational psychology, curriculum methods of teaching, aims and methods of education, special methods, philosophy of education, American public education, professional content and methods, human growth and development, child psychology, teacher and community, principles and techniques of teaching, physical and psychological foundations, social and educational foundations, and many others. The existing wide variety of titles for a small number of professional courses is extremely confusing and has been the basis for sharp criticism of the professional aspects of teacher education.

Such differences confuse certification practices within states and often make transfer of teachers from one state to another extremely difficult. They also impede efforts to develop reciprocity in certification. Lack of standardization of education courses is one of the basic reasons, no doubt, for the overlapping in course content that exists. When institutions and states have failed to develop standard titles and course organization and content for undergraduate education courses which are specifically required for certification, it must be expected that students who change colleges or move from one state to another would encounter much duplication between courses.

In spite of the differences in titles and apparent course organization for required education courses, there is developing some agreement with respect to the general areas of professional study that should be mandatory for certification. Out of the many courses and areas of study listed as required

for certification by the various states, the following are most common: human learning, growth and development, purposes and program of the school, methods and materials for teaching, and student teaching. Additional courses are typically required for elementary teachers in certain special fields.

Essential differences in the certification standards for elementary-school teachers are found in the amount of college work required, the distribution and pattern of work in the academic subject fields as well as in the amount and type of courses required in education. In general, elementary-school teachers are required to complete, in place of the major- and minor-fields pattern required for high-school teachers, a selection of course work in the subject fields common to the elementary-school curriculum. These fields include English, social studies, art, music, science, mathematics, and physical education. Some states specify that the elementary-school teacher must include enough work in one field to count it as a major area of specialization. Others permit the credits in the academic subjects to be distributed in as many as four areas. Most states attempt in their certification regulations to prevent the elementary-school teacher from accumulating all the course credits in subject fields in beginning courses.

With respect to the education courses required for certification to teach in elementary schools, the minimum number is usually higher than demanded for high-school teaching. Prospective elementary-school teachers usually take the same professional sequence required for high-school teachers and, in addition, such courses as teaching of reading, language arts, arithmetic, children's literature, and school health.

TYPES OF CERTIFICATION. Certificates are awarded in accordance with the levels or subjects to be taught or the specialized professional practice for which the individual is preparing. Certificates may be divided into three basic types: temporary professional certificates, life-time or permanent professional certificates, and advanced certificates

for specialized professional practice. In addition to these three basic types, a wide variety of temporary or provisional teaching permits are issued by various states to individuals who fail to qualify for regular certification.

The general certificate. Some states issue general certificates which permit teachers to teach in any field or at any level of the school system for which their preparation qualifies them. A general certificate allows an elementary teacher to teach, for example, in any of the elementary-school grades from kindergarten through grade eight. It may permit an elementary teacher to teach also in a subject field in high school if he has the required amount of specialized preparation. Conversely, high-school teachers, under the general certification plan, can teach in the elementary school provided their preparation is sufficient in the subject fields common to the elementary-school program and they have taken courses in special methods of elementary-school teaching. The general certificate is designed to admit to teaching. The determination of the level at which the teacher works is made by the local school system on the basis of individual qualifications.

Level and subject-field certificates. In contrast to the general certificate which grants admission to the teaching profession is the specialized certificate which permits teaching only at specific levels or in designated subject fields. The level or subject-field certificate may not only limit practice to either elementary or secondary schools, but it may further restrict a teacher's assignment to segments of the elementary or secondary school. Some states, for example, issue certificates good only for teaching in kindergarten and grades one to three, in grades four through six, in junior high school, or in senior high school. Among those that maintain this practice are Arizona, Missouri, New Mexico, New Jersey, Nevada, North Dakota, Pennsylvania, South Dakota, Virginia, Utah, and Washington, D. C. Under this plan of certification, the level or subject field of teaching assignments are greatly restricted. Teachers certified at one level must return to college for additional training, which

often includes more student teaching, in order to qualify for teaching at another level. Reaction against specific certification practices has mounted in recent years, causing states such as California, Colorado, Georgia, Iowa, Michigan, Montana, South Carolina, Texas, and Washington to change to a more general type of certificate.

Temporary professional certificate. This type of teaching license is issued to both elementary- and secondary-school teachers who have graduated from college and have met minimum standards for the beginning teacher. It is called a temporary certificate because it is issued for a prescribed number of years at the end of which it must be either renewed or converted to the permanent professional certificate. Renewal or conversion may be achieved either by successful experience, the completion of additional college study, or the master's degree. The *Temporary Professional Certificate* is the first certificate issued in all states.

Permanent professional certificate. Teachers who have taught successfully a prescribed number of years and have completed the master's degree or additional prescribed courses in college are awarded permanent life-time certificates in 22 states. The life certificate is no longer awarded as the first certificate after graduation from college. This practice has now been discontinued. In 1955, Armstrong and Stinnett predicted that the trend would be away from the life certificate, and actions of states have proved this point to be true.⁴ They indicated that the certificate in most states was of the provisional type, issued contingent upon the completion of subsequent preparation and experience.

The *Permanent Professional Certificate* admits the teacher to permanent professional status without further requirement for continuing professional development. This is comparable to the type of licensing employed in other professions such as law, medicine, and engineering.

⁴W. Earl Armstrong and T. M. Stinnett, *A Manual on Certification Requirements for School Personnel in the United States* (Washington, D. C.: The National Education Association, 1955), p. 7.

Advanced specialized certificate. It has become common practice for states to issue advanced licenses to practice in such fields as administration, supervision, guidance, or school psychology. Such certificates usually require the completion of the master's degree with certain prescribed courses in the field of specialization. Advanced certificates are usually awarded only after three to five years of successful teaching experience and are typically good for life.

STANDARDS FOR CERTIFICATION. Compared to other professions, standards for certification for teaching and specialized educational practice are low. Although comparisons are often made between teaching and such professions as medicine and law, in reality standards for certification compare more realistically with those for nursing, medical technician service, and social work.

Standards for teacher certification have emphasized quantitative factors, such as amount and distribution of college credits. They have placed only a nominal appraisal on quality of work or caliber of the candidate. Even though college graduation is a prerequisite for professional certification in three-fourths of the states, standards in colleges, even accredited institutions, vary so greatly that certification requirements cannot guard the teaching profession against academically inferior candidates. Nor have they always been as effective as is desirable in screening out poor teaching personalities and the emotionally unstable as well as those who are bad character risks.

Health, character, teacher personality, citizenship, loyalty to state and nation are factors that are sometimes weighed in addition to educational qualifications. Some states require health certificates, character testimonials, loyalty oaths, and recommendation by training institution as evidence of fitness to teach. No state requires a minimum level of academic achievement or intellectual ability for certification to teach other than that which might be indicated by college graduation. Some cities set minimum grade-point averages for candidates for positions. Chicago requires a C+ over-all average. In addition a number of individual insti-

tutions have set standards of academic achievement for graduation and recommendation for certification. Such regulations apply, however, to the graduates of the institution only or for teachers in a given city. In no instance do they operate on a state-wide basis.

The comparatively low level of standards for certification maintained by most states and by the regional associations is evidenced by the fact that many colleges require more work and higher levels of achievement than is demanded for license. In fact, it is generally assumed today that state standards for teacher certification must be kept relatively low to permit graduates of poor teacher-education programs to obtain teaching certificates. This approach is in distinct contrast to the philosophy of licensure in other professions. They endeavor instead to set high standards which require preparing institutions to produce well qualified graduates or lose their accreditation.

INTER-STATE RECIPROCITY. Reciprocity agreements between states for teacher certification are now being developed. Such efforts gain support from members of the profession and from teacher-preparing institutions as well as from the public, and state departments of public instruction are beginning to take the lead in establishing such agreements. Generally, reciprocity arrangements develop first between adjoining states, or states within a region, and then spread to those in an area or region.³ For example, perhaps the best established program of reciprocity is found in the New England States, New York, and New Jersey. Their compact has been in operation successfully since 1949. The thirteen states in the Southern Association have had a reciprocity agreement for high-school teachers since 1941 and are attempting to develop a workable program of reciprocity for elementary certification. In the North Central region a working agreement prevails between the states of Illinois, Michigan, Iowa, Kansas, Ohio, Oklahoma, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, South Dakota, and Wisconsin.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 18.

Reciprocity agreements are often hindered by the diversity of specific courses required for certification in the various states, the variations in training levels endorsed, the differing standards maintained by institutions and the statutory requirements imposed on teachers in some states. State legislatures, often antagonistic toward one another, sometimes resist efforts to develop reciprocity agreements for teacher certification. Many apparently feel that such arrangements will make it too easy for teachers to transfer to positions in another state.

IMPACT ON PROGRAMS OF TEACHER EDUCATION. Certification requirements have controlled to a large extent programs for teacher education in many institutions. As Armstrong has so aptly pointed out: ⁶

More often than not these requirements become the curriculum for teacher education in a given state. The faculties of the colleges and universities have no responsibility for the curriculum; they simply administer in their institutions the state requirements for licensure. It is no wonder that so few imaginative programs of teacher education have emerged under this system.

Forward looking and imaginative state officials are now searching for ways to free programs of teacher education from the tight controls of certification requirements. At the same time they, and the members of the profession, wish to maintain the gains that such standards have brought. They are endeavoring to stress quality in licensing practices and to place more weight upon the judgment of competent specialists. Several states follow the practice of asking colleges to submit programs of teacher education to state departments for approval. Graduates of approved programs are then certified upon the recommendation of the preparing institution.

PLACEMENT

Only if colleges and universities see teacher education as a comprehensive obligation to improve schools is teacher placement likely to be an integral aspect of the program of

⁶ W. Earl Armstrong, "The Teaching Profession Retrospect and Prospect," *The Teacher's Role in American Society*, Lindley J. Stiles, ed. (New York: Harper & Bros., 1957), pp. 285-86.

preparing teachers. In the past, many major institutions have looked upon placement as a type of clerical service rendered to their graduates and to employing school systems. Often the service was operated haphazardly by nonprofessional personnel. Little integration existed between the placement activities and the program of teacher preparation. Often the services to school systems were more on the level of an employment office, consisting only of notifying candidates of vacancies. Many smaller institutions have maintained no placement services at all, or they have assigned this function to the dean's office, or to a faculty member. In both instances the taxing burden of other duties usually led to neglect of the professional function of placement.

A number of major universities, particularly some of the private institutions, have given excellent leadership in the development of the placement function as an integral element of the program of teacher education. The logic of such an approach rests on the fact that colleges and universities can only begin the job of teacher preparation. The task must be completed by the employing school systems. For this reason, the transition of the prospective teacher from pre-service preparation to teaching is of great importance. The success of this transition rests heavily upon the quality of professional service provided by the placement service of the institution.

A second factor that emphasized the importance of the placement function to the teacher education program is the responsibility of colleges and universities to elevate the personnel practices of school systems. Placing the right teacher in the right position is the most important step that can be taken to improve schools. When placement is visualized in this context, it becomes more than just helping prospective teachers to obtain positions or school systems to fill vacancies. It represents a systematic, organized program supported by the entire faculty of the training institution to (1) strengthen the preparation of teachers; (2) help teachers grow in service and advance to positions of more effective service; (3) evaluate programs of teacher preparation; and (4) appraise the conditions faced by teachers on the job.

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When placement is conceived as an integral aspect of the total program of teacher preparation, it takes its rightful place along with the processes of recruitment, selection, counseling, and instruction of teachers. Such a role for placement requires that the institution provide professional leadership for this phase of the teacher education program. In fact, the quality of leadership of the placement program is as important as any other service maintained for prospective teachers.

The director of teacher placement in such a program assumes a heavy responsibility for the success and quality of the total program of teacher education. He must work closely with members of the faculty of various departments which contribute to the education of teachers. He also serves in a liaison capacity with educational leaders in the field. It becomes his duty to assist in the appraisal of personnel practices of local school systems and the approaches to placement of members of the faculty of the institution he serves. Perhaps most important of all, he assumes the responsibility of helping the faculty committees judge the success of graduates after placement. Such a process is the key means whereby the institution can evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of its program of pre-service preparation for teaching.

The director of teacher placement will in addition, as a professional person, be continually engaged in research related to such problems as the selection of teachers, the demand for teachers, the factors that make for success in teaching, and the qualities needed for school leadership.

RESPONSIBILITY FOR PLACEMENT. Only in the smallest institutions is teacher placement left today to commercial agencies or to general employment services operated by the state. Placement is being visualized as the function of a number of interested agencies and individuals.

College placement bureaus. The acceptance of placement responsibility by colleges and universities is a development which parallels the growth of professional programs of teacher education. The entry of institutions of higher learning into the field of placement has done much to im-

prove the placement practices as well as to strengthen personnel in school systems.

Originally, colleges and universities developed placement services to protect their graduates from the need to use commercial agencies. Early placement efforts by colleges and universities were devoted to assisting with the original placement of teachers. Because teachers desire to improve their professional or economic status by changing jobs, placement services were soon called upon to help graduates advance professionally in service. This trend has led to a continuous, life-long relationship between graduates of institutions for teacher education and institutional placement agencies. As a consequence, college and university placement services are responsible for a major amount of the teacher placement today. Commercial agencies, especially the more reputable ones, still do considerable business, but they face severe competition from institutional placement programs.

About half of the college and university placement services have integrated teacher placement into the program of teacher education for the school or college of education. Under this type of organization, the director of teacher placement is usually a member of the faculty of the department of education. He is professionally prepared for the responsibility and usually holds the doctorate with specialization in student personnel work. In addition to administering the placement service, he may teach courses and conduct research in his field of specialization.

College advisors. Key agents in the process of teacher placement are the college advisors of prospective teachers. These staff members maintain close relationships with the student in training, assist with his preparation, and know his professional potentialities. They also become familiar with the school systems commonly serviced by the institution. The college advisor's knowledge of prospective teachers and of the communities which employ teachers is an invaluable asset to the placement process.

Advisors prepare recommendations for prospective teachers and often discuss with both employing officials and candidates placement possibilities. They may assist with the

follow-up of graduates after placement. Usually they play a key role in the institution's continuing contact with graduates as they move from position to position. Advisors are in strategic positions to assist with the evaluation of the teacher education program through their contacts, both formal and informal, with teachers after their placement.

The role of the advisor is enhanced by a close relationship with the placement officials. If the placement procedures incorporate the contributions of faculty members, the relationship between the function of placement and the teacher education program is more likely to be well integrated.

Employing school systems. Since the teacher shortage has placed a premium on good teachers, employing school systems are giving more attention to the selection of teachers. Larger school systems maintain well-organized personnel departments to help locate good teachers. In smaller schools, superintendents, principals, and supervisors give time and attention to the process of selection.

Prospective teachers themselves have contributed to the improved selection processes. As jobs became plentiful, candidates found it possible to be more discriminating and selective. Many insisted upon interviewing the principal as well as the superintendent. They ask for detailed information about the school system, its philosophy and program, and the community before finally accepting a position. Well-qualified prospective teachers are able to choose their own positions.

Close cooperation has developed between employing school systems and the placement services and advisors of teacher education institutions. School officials visit colleges and universities where they exchange information about their school systems and the program of teacher education prospective teachers have followed. Often such visits are a valuable source of information for the institution because it is able to receive reports on the success of its graduates in teaching.

School staffs. With the increase in democratic teacher participation in personnel policy formulation and practices,

many schools have developed procedures which permit committees of teachers to share in the selection of new colleagues. This practice is generally approved by prospective teachers because it provides a broader view of the school and its staff. It also offers to them the assurance that the appointment has the approval of future associates who can do much to assist the beginner.

Often members of the teaching staff are better able than are administrators and supervisors to interpret the problems of the school and community to candidates for positions. They may also be better salesmen for the school and community.

The candidate. Sound programs of teacher education place emphasis on helping prospective teachers and those in service develop a professional approach to placement. As a result, personnel ethics are being continuously improved. Professionally prepared teachers know the proper approach to obtaining the type of position they desire. They understand how to appraise the opportunities offered by a school system and where to go for help when they are selecting a position.

It is characteristic of a professional teacher to maintain proper registration with the placement service of the institution in which his preparation was obtained. He keeps his professional papers up to date to assure for himself the most effective placement service and to provide the institution a record of his professional success and advancement. He advises his alma mater about the strengths and weaknesses in its teacher education program as his experiences help him test out his preparation for teaching.

RELATIONSHIP OF PROBATIONARY PERIOD TO PLACEMENT. Traditionally, the probationary period has been viewed as a protection to the employing agency. This is largely the case. It bears a significant relationship to the placement program, however, since both the training institution and the employing school system are vitally interested in the success of the candidate during the probationary period.

A phase of teacher education. The probationary period for beginning teachers is being seen as a phase of teacher

education during which the candidate for teaching matures his professional competence under guidance. Supervision may be provided by both the employing school systems and training institutions. Usually, however, the school system takes major responsibility. During this period careful attention is given the neophyte teacher to help him perfect his skill in teaching and to strengthen weaknesses in subject preparation and general education. The appraisal of job success is often interwoven with the program of teacher preparation as well as with individual personal qualities. This is a period of tentative placement during which the college or university should maintain close association with its product to make certain that maximum professional efficiency is developed in the field.

Substitute for the internship. So long as bona fide internships do not exist, the probationary period is the only type of internship that the new teacher receives. A study of the teaching assignments of beginning teachers reveals how ineffectual such assignments may be in terms of their contributions to the continued professional development of teachers. Beginning teachers often are assigned the most difficult classes to teach, given the heaviest extracurricular loads to carry, and provided little supervisory assistance.

The college placement officials can do much to help school systems convert the probationary period into an internship. They can help the candidate for a position ascertain the nature of the assignment and the amount of assistance that the probationary period will offer. They can encourage faculty colleagues to help make the probationary period a healthy phase of continued professional growth.

Mutual protection for teacher and school system. In spite of the tendency to consider the probationary period as a means of protecting the school system from inferior teachers, it also is a time during which the school system may be on trial to the prospective teacher. This is particularly true during times when good teachers are scarce. This period permits both the beginning teacher and the school system, with the help of the preparing institution, to size each other up in an effort to appraise their mutual compatibility.

Often during this period, the beginning teacher learns that he is better suited for a different type of teaching assignment or for another kind of community. Such decisions usually require the professional counsel and guidance of the institutional placement service. They should represent a normal aspect of the process of helping new teachers find suitable teaching situations.

NONINSTITUTIONAL PLACEMENT AGENCIES. In addition to the teacher placement services maintained by colleges and universities, commercial agencies and state teacher placement services as well as those of professional teachers' associations assist teachers in finding positions. By and large such activities do not influence programs of teacher education since their emphasis is solely on placement.

Commercial placement agencies. Placement is carried on by approximately eighty commercial agencies in the United States.⁷ These organizations negotiate as agents for teachers to help them obtain employment. Typically they charge a percentage of the teacher's first-year salary after placement, usually 5 per cent, for their services. Enrollment fees are usually also assessed.

Commercial placement agencies have been found useful to teachers, particularly when they desire to obtain a position in another section of the country. Except in major institutions, college placement services do not normally have extensive contact with positions outside their own regions. Commercial agencies in one geographical area may be more effective in helping a teacher from another section of the country to find a job than the service of the candidate's college. Such agencies are able to provide useful help to teachers who graduate from small colleges which are not able to maintain efficient placement services for their graduates. Some specialize in the placement of teachers in special fields such as music, art, or business education.

State placement services. Eleven states maintain teacher placement services.⁸ They are either attached to a general

⁷ National Education Association, *Special Memo* (Washington, D. C.: The Association, 1957), pp. 15-21.

⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 22.

state employment agency or the State Department of Public Instruction. Like college bureaus, they provide assistance to teachers and school systems by compiling sets of professional papers for registrants and notifying candidates of vacancies. Often institutional placement services assist with the compilation of the sets of credentials. Such services usually are of value principally to graduates of small institutions which provide little placement assistance. They typically are unrelated to programs of teacher education at either the pre-service or in-service levels.

Placement services of professional organizations. In seventeen states, professional teachers' associations attempt to help their members find teaching positions.⁹ These services, like those maintained by the state, usually concentrate solely upon placement, although occasionally they may conduct studies of teacher supply and demand.

FOLLOW-UP

One of the most neglected aspects of the teacher education program is the follow-up services which are designed to help beginning teachers make the transition from college to successful full-time teaching. In spite of the importance that is attached to assisting teachers to make a good beginning, few colleges and universities maintain systematic programs of follow-up. This is true in the face of evidence that many promising prospective teachers meet with such traumatic experiences during their first year of teaching that they withdraw from the profession.¹⁰

ROLE OF TRAINING INSTITUTION. Follow-up is generally considered to be a responsibility of the training institution. Such an assignment does not minimize the obligation of the employing school system to help the beginning teacher adjust satisfactorily and continue his professional development. Rather, it underscores the importance of the training institution extending assistance to its graduates in their initial

⁹ *Ibid.*, pp. 11-14

¹⁰ Albert H. Shuster, Jr., "Supervision and the Non-Professionally Trained Teacher," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 42 (May, 1956), p. 283

assignments. It calls attention to the fact that the new teacher, beginning as he does with only a partial preparation for teaching, needs a helping hand learning to apply in practice the theory and principles of teaching he learned as student trainee. For colleges to leave to chance the transfer of knowledge and skills from the pre-service program to in-service practice is to risk loss of or failure to establish professional competence of graduates.

Cooperative programs of follow-up. Following World War II, institutions of higher learning in Ohio endeavored to develop a cooperative program of follow-up. This plan called for each institution to provide a program of follow-up assistance to all beginning teachers in its region, regardless of where they received their undergraduate preparation. Unfortunately, this program, good as it promised to be, never progressed beyond the planning stages because of lack of financial support in the cooperating institutions.

For a number of years the University of Cincinnati has carried on a follow-up program for beginning teachers in cooperation with the Cincinnati public schools. Until 1957 a practicum, which met once a week, was taught by staff members of the university. Since that date supervisors of the public school system have been in charge of the practicum work.

FOLLOW-UP PROCEDURES. A number of procedures have been employed in follow-up programs. Usually no institution employs all consistently. All have been reported as valuable in given situations, but no evaluation has yet validated the best or most efficient.

Individual interviews. Interviews with new teachers by staff members of training or cooperating institutions are one of the most popular procedures employed in follow-up programs. These are often conducted in the teaching situation when college staff members visit the school. Or they may be arranged on occasions when graduates are returning to campus.

The question of who should conduct follow-up interviews with teachers—former advisors, supervisors of student teaching, professors in major and minor fields, or officials

connected with the teacher placement service, or some other administrative agent in the college—remains yet to be resolved in most institutions. Often the people who could be of greatest help to beginning teachers are the ones with the least amount of time to conduct interviews. Preferences of teachers vary with the degree of rapport with former professors and administrative officials.

Reports of school supervisors. This procedure is followed by the Indiana State Teachers College with good results. Such reports commonly treat strengths and weaknesses of teachers and indicate directly or indirectly improvements needed in programs of preparation. Depending upon the degree to which the college faculty is able to participate in follow-up assistance to graduates, such reports may lead to direct and valuable assistance to the neophyte teacher.

Group conferences. A useful procedure for helping beginning teachers is the group conference, usually held for teachers in some region or for all in one subject field of specialization. One value of such conferences is the exchange of experience that takes place among teachers who are graduates from the same institution. Group conferences provide a useful means of evaluating the program of pre-service preparation for teaching by those who are confronted with translating their preparation into professional competence.

Periodic appraisal and evaluation. The practice of conducting systematic and periodic evaluations of programs of teacher preparation by asking graduates to respond to carefully prepared instruments of appraisal has been adopted in some institutions. This procedure makes a greater contribution to the improvement of the program for the benefit of future teachers than it helps the individual teacher who responds. It has the advantage of assisting the faculty of the training institution to learn how graduates view their preparation in retrospect.

Service and achievement records. Some colleges and universities ask school systems to help them appraise the quality

of graduates by reporting the service or achievement records of beginning teachers. Such reports are confidential and used only as a basis for appraisal of the teacher education program as reflected by the teacher's adjustment and success on the job. They furnish a valuable source of data for the study of such questions as the relationship between success in the pre-service program and actual teaching, changes in teacher attitudes toward teaching and phases of college curriculum, professional habits of graduates, and professional progress of teachers.

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Part IV

IN-SERVICE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

CHAPTER 14

The Internship

Efforts to establish the internship for teaching have the advantage of the experiences of other established professions. Moreover, they can be guided by the experimental teacher internship programs in a number of major institutions which are testing the validity of various procedures and practices. Key problems related to the internship in teaching are becoming clearly defined as members of the profession and the public both gain better insight into its promise for the future.

PROFESSIONALIZING FUNCTION OF THE INTERNSHIP

In all the professions, the internship carries the major assignment of professionalization. Its general background, function, nature, and agents of responsibility are fairly similar for such professions as medicine, law, and engineering.

BACKGROUND. To a remarkable extent the pattern of development of the internship in the various professions is similar. It is essentially the outgrowth of the apprentice system. As professional preparation became institutionalized in colleges and universities, the internship was developed to provide practical training under the direct supervision of competent members of the profession. For medicine the internship was gradually transferred from the jurisdiction of individual general practitioners to the hospi-

tal staffs. Law interns still learn the "facts of life" about their profession in the offices and under the guidance of older lawyers. The engineering intern usually is employed for a four-year period in an apprenticeship status before he can be fully certified as a practicing engineer.

FUNCTION. The internship serves as a period of transition from formal study, usually in a university, to professional practice. For the profession it represents the final phase of admission, a period during which the neophyte proves his worthiness. For the intern, this is a stage of learning how to apply knowledge to the solution of professional problems. It is also a time during which the prospective member of a profession becomes intimately acquainted with the various aspects of professional emphasis and tests his interest and ability relative to a career specialization.

For the public as well as the profession itself, the internship serves as a protection against inadequately prepared or incompetent practitioners. In general, the more highly regarded a profession and its service to society, the greater the emphasis placed upon the value of the internship for preparing new members to maintain the high standards required.

NATURE. The emphasis in the internship is on application. It is a period of practice under supervision, without full professional responsibility. During this assignment the intern is expected to develop professional skills, attitudes, and relationships which are essential to full-fledged professional status.

Characteristically, the internship in all professions provides for a full range of professional orientation. The intern may perform certain tasks as regular and continuing assignments. The major portion of his duties, however, shift from one type of professional activity to another as acquaintance and satisfactory competence are achieved in each endeavor.

This is a period of only nominal financial return for the intern. In fact, it is common in professions such as medicine and law for the participant to earn less than his actual

cost of living during this period. Such a practice is justified on the grounds that the internship is a period of learning, of instruction under supervision, rather than the beginning of professional practice.

RESPONSIBILITY. Responsibility for maintaining and supervising the internship programs is, in most fields, assumed by practicing members of the profession, rather than by the preparing institutions. It is true that a close relationship may be maintained between supervisors of interns and the university or college which offers the pre-internship professional preparation, and which may actually give credit for the internship.

Members of a profession who help to train interns usually do not receive compensation for their services as intern supervisors. They perform this work as a recognized part of their professional obligation to help prepare their future associates. Where the intern trains under a private practitioner, of course, as in a law office, the service rendered during this period of practice more than off-sets the investment of time and money of the internship supervisor.

In every case, a close relationship exists between the legal body which licenses for professional practice and programs of internship. State agencies such as hospitals or courts of law which are related to the professional field are often designated as centers for the internship.

EFFORTS TO ESTABLISH THE INTERNSHIP FOR TEACHING

Efforts to establish the internship for teaching have been sporadic, poorly organized, and often unsupported by members of the profession itself. Initiative for such attempts has been taken by institutions of teacher education, rather than by practicing teachers. School systems which are the logical centers for the internship have often looked upon it as an imposition instead of a professional opportunity and responsibility.

EARLY INTERNSHIP EMPHASIS. The first efforts to professionalize preparation for teaching placed heavy emphasis upon a type of internship. In two-year normal schools, the

second year was often devoted almost entirely to the practice of teaching under supervision. The campus demonstration school developed, as a parallel to the clinical hospitals for medical education, to provide opportunities for internship training. During this stage in the growth of teacher education, pedagogical training was so closely integrated with the internship practice that the procedure approximated in many ways the characteristics of the internship in other professions.

As the preparation for teaching became more formalized and incorporated as a part of undergraduate programs in four-year colleges and universities, emphasis on the internship type of practice teaching declined. Actually the time allocated to practice was reduced both with respect to the total work of the intern and to the length of intervals during which internship duties could be assumed. Whereas in early normal schools the prospective teacher might spend almost full time as an intern for a year, by the turn of the century the amount was often reduced to as little as an hour or two a day for no longer than one semester.

PIONEER INTERNSHIP PROGRAMS. Prior to World War II, about a fourth of the universities in the United States experimented with the internship in an effort to establish a pattern for the teaching profession.¹ Among the leaders in this movement were the universities of Michigan, Wisconsin, Illinois, and California.

These internship programs faced various problems ranging from opposition by members of the profession to inability to attract a sufficient number of interns. In a number of cases the internship essentially represented cadetships provided by city school systems for a few beginning teachers who lacked the prerequisite number of years of experience to qualify for regular employment. Supervision from preparing institutions was often nominal. Some institutions limited participation in internship to superior graduates;

¹ Lindley J. Stiles, "Internships for Prospective High School Teachers," *Journal of Educational Research*, 39 (May, 1946), pp. 664-67.

others admitted only those who could obtain positions as interns.

The program of the interns required teaching, observing of experienced teachers, conferences with supervisors as well as helping with the extracurricular activities. In some situations the amount of teaching increased as the year progressed. Typical length was one year. Correlated college course work was not commonly provided for interns, although those located near the sponsoring institution could enroll for evening or Saturday classes and often were encouraged to do so. College credit was granted for the internship itself in most of the programs.

Various arrangements were developed to pay interns.² In two of these early programs, interns paid for the privilege of being given training. No pay at all often was the practice, but some school systems paid from one-fourth to three-fourths of the normal first-year salaries of teachers.

Following World War II, interest in the internship was not strong. Bishop's comprehensive study of the intership reported in 1948 revealed that at that time only 59 colleges and universities provided programs.³ Of this number, however, many were only nominal and only 17 percent were placed during the fifth year. Opinions of 36 selected authorities on teacher education at that time were fairly evenly divided regarding whether the internship should follow the baccalaureate degree.

RECENT EMPHASIS ON THE INTERNSHIP. The teacher shortage combined with wide-spread dissatisfaction with the professional phase of teacher education have promoted experimentation in the past decade with the internship. This movement has been due largely to support and encouragement of pioneer projects by The Fund for the Advancement of Education.

The demand for teachers which developed following World War II made it imperative for ways to be found to

² *Ibid.*, p. 666.

³ Clifford L. Bishop, "The Organization of Internships for Teachers," *The School Review*, 56 (November, 1948), pp. 346-47.

recruit and prepare quickly for teaching individuals from the only source of educated people available without professional commitments—graduates of liberal arts colleges. Many individuals in this category possess the personal and intellectual attributes for teaching. They have good quality preparation in both the areas of general education and in their subject-matter specializations. To qualify for teaching they need only professional orientation and an opportunity to develop skill in the processes of instruction. Some in this group have actually bypassed preparation for teaching because they preferred to devote their full time in college to liberal arts courses.

In addition to the need to devise a pattern for the professional program which would be available to convert graduates of liberal arts colleges into teachers, it was recognized that steps should be taken to alleviate the almost universal rejection by liberal arts colleges of the professional phase of the teacher's preparation. A closely related goal was the resolution of the long-standing conflict between professors of liberal arts and education.

To solve these critical problems, finding new sources of teacher supply and better ways to prepare teachers, The Fund for the Advancement of Education, beginning in 1951, stimulated the launching of a variety of internship programs. These experimental projects varied considerably from one institution to another. All, however, could be said to involve a form of internship at the post-baccalaureate level of preparation for teaching. They were designed for college graduates with no or only a few professional education courses.

Programs for liberal arts graduates. One group of institutions of higher learning, including Temple University, Cornell University, Harvard University, Goucher College, and all the state colleges in Arkansas, has endeavored to test the assumption that better programs of teacher preparation will result from arranging for the standard four-year liberal arts program to precede all professional education. In these arrangements all the professional emphasis is postponed

until the fifth year. The internship represents the central emphasis. Content usually incorporated in education courses is presented in special seminars, during evenings or on Saturdays, in such fashion that it relates closely to the supervised practice of the intern. Supervision of interns in most programs is done by master teachers jointly employed by school systems and the participating college or university.

Interns are selected on the basis of their backgrounds in liberal arts, interest in and personal qualifications for teaching. They are provided, in most of the programs, stipends of around \$125.00 per month, supplied from grant funds, and some school systems have paid nominal salaries to interns.

The fifth-year type of professional program has been developed in a number of the institutions for teacher education in the United States that offer graduate work. Many of the programs predated the projects subsidized by the Fund. The character of the non-subsidized fifth-year programs varies widely as far as emphasis on the internship goes. Some institutions only condense their junior and senior year education courses into one year with little change in the nature and emphasis of the work. Others, like those cooperating in the Fund experiments, have placed considerable stress upon the internship-type of fifth-year professional program.

Programs for mature adults. A type of program planned to attract mature adults to teaching emphasizes aspects of the internship that are commonly found in other professions. These include (1) assumption of a school system of the responsibility for supervising and paying a nominal salary to interns; (2) assignment of interns to professional responsibility throughout the programs; and (3) cooperation from preparing institutions.

In the internship programs planned for the person who has been out of college several years, work in classrooms as teachers is the central emphasis with professional content integrated with practice. A period of summer study, usually on the campus of the cooperating institution of higher

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learning, precedes the internship assignment. It provides for orientation to teaching and includes observation and participation in a summer laboratory school program. Professional seminars are scheduled during the intern year.

Four programs of this type have been supported by The Fund for the Advancement of Education. They are located at San Francisco State College, San Diego State College, The Claremont Colleges and the University of Southern California. The University of California introduced a similar type of program on its Berkeley campus in 1956, originally with some aid from the Rosenberg Foundation, but wholly supported by the University and cooperating public school systems by 1960.⁴ Actually the California program takes a few liberal arts graduates just out of college, but 76 percent of its interns are older people, with the average age of 26 years.

For these programs for adults, all located in the state of California, special certification provisions have been established permitting interns to be legally employed and assigned to teaching positions. Temporary certificates are granted to interns. The University of California program requires interns to obtain positions with cooperating school systems before final admission.

Master of Arts in teaching programs. As early as 1936, Harvard University introduced a program leading to a Master of Arts in Teaching degree which was designed essentially to unite the resources of professors of education and academic scholars in the preparation of teachers.⁵ With assistance later from The Fund for the Advancement of Education, this program has established a pattern that is now being followed elsewhere. A program at Yale University and a joint project at Vanderbilt University and Peabody College have had support from the Fund.

⁴ James C. Stone, *The Graduate Internship Program in Teacher Education* (Berkeley: University of California, 1959), p. 51.

⁵ Judson T. Shaplin, "The Harvard Internship Program for the Preparation of Elementary and Secondary School Teachers," *The Educational Record*, 37 (Oct. 1936), pp. 316-35.

Essential features of the Master of Arts in Teaching type of programs include (1) provision of both professional and subject field courses at both undergraduate and graduate levels; (2) close relation of academic courses to the work which is expected of the teacher; (3) reduction of duplication and the number of professional courses; and (4) substantial emphasis, usually a full semester, on the internship.

Harvard's pioneer program now includes two types of plan. Under Plan A the student takes a full program of subject-field and education courses on campus with related observation of the work of secondary schools. During the second semester he serves full-time as an apprentice teacher in a local school during mornings and continues work in the University in the afternoons. Under Plan B interns are paid \$1500 for a half year of teaching with two interns being employed for a high-school teaching assignment to replace a full-time teacher. While one intern teaches, the second engages in full-time study. The second semester the assignments are reversed. In the Harvard-Newton part of Plan B, participants are given an intensive six-weeks summer course prior to the internship year.

EMERGING FEATURES OF INTERNSHIP FOR TEACHERS

Out of the experimental programs which emphasize the internship, a number of new and unique features are emerging which may characterize the future internship for teachers. These developments have not as yet been completely validated as the best possible procedures; nevertheless, sufficient experience has been had with each to suggest that it will receive attention in future internship programs.

INTEGRATION WITH TOTAL PROFESSIONAL PROGRAM. The integration of the internship with the total program of professional education has the virtue of intimately relating pedagogical theory and knowledge with classroom practice. For the prospective teacher whose concern about teaching centers on learning how to manage a classroom, this arrangement makes the study of education vital and exciting as

well as practical. For departments and schools of education it requires the refinement of professional content to eliminate duplication and multiplicity of courses as well as to select material most pertinent for the beginner.

Replacement for student teaching. Programs which integrate the internship with the pre-service professional phase of teacher education generally substitute the internship for student teaching. Often they provide for some pre-internship observation and participation. The Harvard-Newton plan requires the prospective intern to engage essentially in student teaching the summer prior to the internship assignment. The University of California provides for a similar pre-internship laboratory experience. The latter institution reports that this summer preparation for the internship is essential.⁶

Post-baccalaureate placement. All of the newer internship programs place it beyond the baccalaureate level of the college program. This permits the arrangements for the internship to be free from the conflicts that limit student teaching. A characteristic of the internship is coming to be that it involves full-time work in a school as a practicing apprentice teacher with professional instruction provided on a supplementary basis. A few of the internships that have been developed provide for only a semester of apprenticeship experience; most of them, however, require a full year to be devoted to internship training. The placement of the internship in the fifth year adds a year to the pre-service program of teacher education, an advance that many applaud. Though it has been suggested that the internship should follow five years of college and graduate school study,⁷ such a level of professional preparation for teaching, at least for the first stages of teaching, is some years ahead.

INTEGRAL ASPECT OF MASTER'S DEGREE PROGRAMS. Newer internship programs are being developed as integral aspects

⁶ James C. Stone, *op. cit.*

⁷ Lindley J. Stiles, "Let's Raise Teacher Standards," *The Texas Outlook*, 42, No. 4 (April, 1958), p. 24.

of the master's degree for teachers. Graduate credit, as a result, is now often awarded for the study of content in professional education that traditionally carried only undergraduate recognition.

The granting of graduate credit for the internship and the awarding of the master's degree for the pre-service professional phase of the program of teacher education meets with skepticism in some quarters. On the other hand, some endorse this trend because it establishes the professional aspects of teacher preparation and the internship on a basis similar to that found in other professions.

THE INTERN AS A MEMBER OF AN INSTRUCTIONAL TEAM. It is predicted by Woodring that by 1970 the internship period, for all candidates, will include experience as a member of a teaching team.⁸ Already several major institutions, including Harvard, Stanford, Wisconsin, and Chicago, are experimenting with differentiated school staff teams which include in some instances teacher interns.

Perhaps the most critical problem involved in attracting and holding superior teachers in local systems relates to the failure to recognize and reward the various levels of professional competence. Nor is identification made of the differing degrees of professional responsibility involved in the variety of school assignments traditionally given the common designation "teaching." As it becomes clear that differentiation in staff duties and levels of professional function must be accomplished in the field of education—just as it has been done in the professions of medicine and engineering—the part the internship can play in such a teaming of competence and professional maturity for a school becomes easy to visualize. In the future, the internship may well represent the first professional level of the instructional team.

PREPARATION FOR TEACHING IN THE ELECTRONIC AGE. Teaching in the electronic age promises to differ vastly

⁸ Paul Woodring, *New Directions in Teacher Education* (New York: The Fund for the Advancement of Education, 1957), p. 77.

from the simple, person-to-person pattern which has prevailed. Some hints of things to come have been available in the introduction of audio-visual resources to teaching which has been taking place during the past 25 years. With the development of television, vastly expanded opportunities are presented to improve and enrich instructional procedures as well as to extend the benefits of great teachers to more students. Research on the instructional value of a variety of teaching machines—computers, tape recording instruments, talking books—as well as new visual and sound teaching aids, is giving insight into the use of these additional products of the electronic age which will change the work of the teacher.

The internship must include responsibility for introducing the apprentice teacher to the wide range of mechanical aids that may serve the process of education in the future. Experimental internship programs have shown only slight recognition of this principle to date; it is predicted, however, that this goal will become more widely recognized in years to come.⁹

PROBLEMS RELATED TO THE INTERNSHIP

Obviously, the establishment of the internship in teaching is no easy accomplishment; otherwise, it would have been achieved already. Unlike other professions which can induce able young people to undertake long periods of preparation followed by a year or more of internship at low remuneration, teaching offers neither prestige nor the promise of ultimate high financial returns. As internship programs are again being emphasized, the key problems related to the internship stand out.

COMMUNITY ATTITUDES. A major block to internship programs in many communities is the reluctance of parents and laymen in general to permit interns to practice in local schools. This type of attitude, of course, is met in all pro-

⁹ Lindley J. Stiles, "Education in Orbit," *The Nation's Schools*, 63, No. 6 (June, 1957), pp. 47-54.

fessions. The public quite naturally prefers to be served by established practitioners of the professions. It is more acute for the internship in teaching, however, because parents in most instances have no choice of service. A few financially well-to-do families can take their children out of public schools if they object to the presence of interns. But most people are helpless to make the choice of a school.

Many citizens who do not favor internship programs in their schools take such attitudes because they fear that children will not be protected from inexperienced and unprepared teachers. Some who strongly endorse the internship as a means of improving teacher education prefer not to have internship programs established in the schools their children attend. Even individuals who oppose any form of professional preparation for teachers have been known to oppose internships on the grounds that children may suffer under interns.

Establishing the internship for teaching requires the change of community attitudes toward it. To achieve this end, members of the profession must demonstrate clearly the protections for children that are incorporated in plans for internship programs.

ASSUMPTION OF RESPONSIBILITY BY SCHOOLS AND TEACHERS. Every Director of Student Teaching is familiar with the lack of enthusiasm that school systems and teachers often exhibit toward providing opportunities for laboratory experience for prospective teachers. Not too many members of the teaching profession have developed to the level of professional responsibility involved in helping prepare future teachers. The internship may meet similar resistance in schools where officials and members of the instructional staff do not feel obligated to assist interns.

Certain characteristics of the internship often make it more acceptable than have been traditional programs of student teaching. In the first place, the intern is assigned to a school full time for a sustained period, for example, a semester or a year. The intern's full attention, consequently, is on the process of learning to teach. This is in contrast to

many programs of student teaching in which the trainee spends only a portion of the day, for a limited number of weeks, and is constantly torn between his interests and academic assignments on campus and the work of a practice teacher. The intern has the advantage, also, of having completed his college degree. He is better prepared in the subject field, or fields, which he is learning to teach. Furthermore, full responsibility for supervision and evaluation of the intern often rests with teachers in the school system instead of with members of the college staff.

Such advantages, and others, make internship programs more acceptable to school systems and to teachers who assist with them. Negative attitudes that prevail toward student teaching must be counteracted in many situations, however, before members of the profession will welcome interns.

SUPERVISION OF INTERNS. Practically all experiments with internships have identified the difficulties involved in providing adequate and competent professional supervision for interns.¹⁰ At the same time, all attest that the quality of supervision is one of the most, if not the most, important factor in the success of internship programs.

One major difficulty in the planning of supervision for interns is that this function, as student teaching programs have been developed, traditionally rests with preparing institutions. If college credit is given for the internship, or related study, institutions will require that evaluations be made by staff members. Some of the experimental programs have attempted to meet this problem by giving joint appointments, in the preparing institution and the school system, to teachers who supervise interns.

An additional dimension of the problem of supervision relates to the fact that many teachers who are excellent examples for interns, and under whose direction an intern might be expected to profit, do not succeed well as supervisors. As has long been known, supervision, like admin-

¹⁰ James C. Stone, *op. cit.*, p. 24.

istration or other types of specialized practice, requires abilities—both personal and professional—different from those essential for successful teaching.

OBTAINING INTERNS. Internship programs for teaching have failed in the past because not enough prospective teachers were willing to undergo an additional year of preparation. Unless the internship is made a legal requirement for admission to practice, it may be expected that so long as the teacher shortage exists and school systems' salary patterns are low, many who plan to teach will choose to do so after completing four years of college.

The nominal stipends paid interns in some of the experimental programs may be attractive to college graduates who need to complete a program of professional preparation in order to be certified for teaching. Such remuneration can hardly be expected, however, to be an inducement to those who can complete their professional preparation while still in college. Young women, particularly, who plan to teach only a few years may be reluctant to devote one of them to an internship for which pay is only a portion of a beginning teacher's salary. On the other hand, some girls, and men as well, who are in doubt about teaching will continue to prefer to complete liberal arts programs before undertaking professional preparation.

FINANCING INTERNSHIP PROGRAMS. Practically all recent experiments with the internship have had the benefit of foundation funds to cover extrainstitutional costs and to pay stipends to interns. When such funds are no longer available, institutions and school systems must find ways to assume financial support for internship programs.

The major promise of providing for the internship rests on two possibilities. The first is that school systems will come to accept a share of the responsibility for providing the internship. As they do, it is expected that stipends for interns and at least some of the costs of supervision can be borne by local communities, possibly with additional state aid for such service. The other relates to the replacement

of traditional programs of student teaching, all relatively expensive, with the internship. Such a development would free funds in many institutions now expended on undergraduate student teaching for use in graduate internship programs.

It can be expected that in many colleges and universities new developments in the internship will be operated, for some years to come, side by side with student teaching. The difficulties involved in obtaining adequate budgetary support for both types of programs can be easily envisioned. The problem is intensified because most, if not all, institutions of higher learning have not as yet evidenced a willingness to support professional preparation for teaching on levels established for the training of doctors, engineers, or lawyers.

EVALUATION. Some evidence exists to indicate general enthusiasm for the internship in recently developed experimental programs. Such positive attitudes are insufficient, however, to guide the total development of internship programs. More detailed, objective appraisal will be required not only to measure the success of the internship as a phase of the professional preparation of teachers but also to indicate which procedures are most worthy of adoption.

The problem of evaluation is one which gains added emphasis from the experience of other professions. Medicine, for example, is currently going through a period of questioning the value of its internship pattern. Some medical educators have advocated that the internship be discarded. Medical interns themselves have attested to the lack of professional value they received from their experience in particular situations. This type of reaction to the internship in other fields bespeaks caution to those planning internships for teaching.

IMPACT ON THE PROFESSION. The impact of internship programs on the organized profession of teaching is difficult to anticipate. The first projects supported by The Fund for the Advancement of Education were strongly resisted by

teacher educators as well as by teachers and administrators in local schools. Some believe that the negative attitudes exhibited were due to misunderstandings and disapproval of the manner in which the programs were launched rather than to the purpose of the internships themselves.¹¹ Organized professional groups are always likely to be skeptical of proposals to significantly alter the pathways by which professional admission is achieved. It remains to be seen whether such groups as the National Educational Association and its affiliate organizations as well as the American Federation of Teachers will join wholeheartedly in support of the development of the internship for teaching.

PROMISE OF THE INTERNSHIP

The various problems incident to the development of internship programs should not obscure the promise that this type of development holds for teacher education and American elementary and secondary schools.

ATTRACTING THE BEST TO TEACHING. Changes in programs of teacher education which make them more inviting to able young people, as the internship is reported to be doing, hold worthwhile promise for the future. The rejection of teaching by many of the best students, as judged by both personal and academic qualifications, can no longer go unchecked. The internship-type of teacher education programs appears to challenge good students and to stimulate rather than repel them from the study of professional education.

RELIEVING THE TEACHER SHORTAGE. Any program which adds to the supply of qualified and competent teachers is worthy of support. Internship programs have made additional good teachers available. Those designed for adults who have been out of college a few years have remarkable records for preparing teachers who remain in teaching. Most of those who have gone through the California program,¹²

¹¹ Paul Woodring, *op. cit.*, p. 33.

¹² James C. Stone, *op. cit.*, p. 19.

for example, plan a life career in teaching. Few, if any, undergraduate programs of teacher education could equal this record.

LABORATORY EMPHASIS FOR PRE-SERVICE PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION. The internship makes possible a broader and more concentrated laboratory emphasis for the entire professional phase of teacher education. This is particularly true of those programs which relate professional content to the internships during the fifth year. To center the pre-service professional training on the internship is to give it new and added vigor for many prospective teachers.

DIFFERENTIATION OF PROFESSIONAL COMPETENCIES. Establishment of the internship is one step toward the differentiation of school staff assignments and competencies. It forces the recognition that certain teaching chores can be performed by the apprentice while other professional operations require highly skilled personnel. The internship alone will not achieve the goal of professional differentiation, of course, but it represents a step in this direction.

RESOLVING CONFLICT OVER UNDERGRADUATE PROGRAMS. To a considerable degree the conflict over teacher education results from the desires of both professors of the subject fields of specialization and of education to have more of the prospective teacher's course program assigned to their respective offerings. Each group has in the past sought ways to reduce the requirements in the other's fields. This type of academic cannibalism is likely to continue in many institutions as long as the program of professional education must compete with the traditional liberal arts courses at the undergraduate level. Prospective teachers will, as in the past, be caught in the middle; with professors vying for their loyalty and overloading their programs to make certain that important work is not missed.

The fifth-year type of internship programs help to resolve the conflict over the undergraduate programs of teachers. They give to liberal arts professors the amount of student time they demand. At the same time they do not

reduce the amount of emphasis on professional education. The changes they are bringing about in the organization and presentation of pedagogical content may help further to develop respect for the professor of education by his colleagues in liberal arts.

RAISING PROFESSIONAL STANDARDS. The over-all promise of internship programs, of course, is that they will raise the standards of the teaching profession. To the extent that the internship can help to attract better candidates and prepare superior teachers, the professional contributions of teachers to children and schools will be improved.

If the internship should become a prerequisite for full professional membership, and certification, it can serve as a final period of appraisal of a candidate's fitness to teach. The results, if the experience of other professions can be taken as a guide, will be higher standards, greater respect, and ultimately higher financial rewards for teaching.

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CHAPTER 15

Postgraduate Teacher Education

Postgraduate programs of education for teachers have burgeoned during the past twenty-five years. Most of the study has been at the master's degree level, usually in summer schools, but increasingly teachers are completing two or three years of graduate work. The interest of teachers in postgraduate courses is due in part to the recognition that four years of college are inadequate to prepare a professional teacher. Enrollment in graduate schools has been encouraged by the policy of school boards to award salary increments for specified amounts of graduate work completed.

In spite of the widespread growth of postgraduate programs of teacher education, confusion has prevailed relative to the objectives which such work should serve. Many institutions have offered graduate degree programs that prepare only for specialized practice in education in such fields as supervision, guidance, or administration. Only in recent years have efforts been made to design postgraduate programs which would be of maximum help to classroom teachers.

This chapter will consider some of the broad issues and problems and the nature and content of postgraduate pro-

grams of education for teachers. Examples of experimental plans that are now being tested will be presented. It should be remembered that no attempt is made here to consider the graduate programs which prepare for various types of specialization in the field of education.

ISSUES AND PROBLEMS

Various issues and problems related to postgraduate programs of study for teachers grow out of the complexity of the preparation and practice of personnel in education. They relate also to theories of teacher education as well as to weaknesses which have prevailed in aspects of the professional courses in graduate schools.

SPECIFIC VERSUS GENERAL IN TEACHER EDUCATION. One of the most perplexing problems in the field of postgraduate education is that of the specific versus the general in teacher education. This issue arises, in part, from different concepts of teaching and, to some extent, from different theories of learning. There are many kinds of teachers—elementary, secondary, and college; vocational and academic. Many teach specialties such as art, music, physical education, home economics, business education, speech, English, foreign languages, agriculture, history, social studies, science, mathematics, and health education. Some teachers give full time to subject-matter courses; others specialize in the direction of pupil activities. Some have only class-room responsibilities; others must perform the functions of supervising home rooms, directing extracurricular activities, performing counseling, or working with community projects. Nevertheless, the educational personnel who perform all these varied tasks, in different kinds of communities, with wide ranges of pupil groups, are all called "teachers."

The relative emphasis which should be given to specific as compared to general graduate education of teachers grows out of the diversity of the roles assigned to those called "teachers." Some maintain that the common elements running through the many responsibilities which educational personnel assume are not sufficiently numerous or definitive

to justify the use of the single term "teacher" or to suggest that a general program of graduate study can prepare for all types of assignments. This point of view holds that the kinds of education and skills required for various types of professional practice are specific to each particular function.

In contrast to the theory of specific function with corresponding preparation, is the belief that common elements are found in the diverse duties performed by educational practitioners which justify a more general approach to graduate programs for teachers. This position receives support from the fact that specialized programs are highly expensive in terms of both time and graduate school costs. In addition, many people feel that emphasis upon specialized programs has contributed to the problem of duplication of content, particularly in professional courses. They feel that a proper synthesis of subject matter, in both academic professional areas, can produce a common core of preparation for teachers that will yield better results.

Related to this issue is the traditional organization of graduate schools which favors categorization of one type or another. The specificities that prevail in course and departmental groupings, in nonprofessional fields particularly, have not been developed to provide for the postgraduate study of teachers.

GROUPINGS OF ACADEMIC STUDIES. Some institutions of higher education already group their academic studies into broad areas or divisions such as the humanities, social studies, biological sciences, and physical sciences. These groupings suggest the existence of a degree of communality of interest and possibly, too, some interrelationship of content. To some extent they may indicate the validity of certain common methods of study, research and investigation; common attitudes, knowledges and skills; and common vocational outlets. They may indicate interdepartmental character of certain course areas such as the biological foundations of human behavior, the chemical-physical world and man, the social foundations of education, the nature and structure of language, or the nature and functions of aes-

thetic experience. Similarly, broad categories, or groupings of related content, could be established in the field of professional education. This type of grouping of content and professional courses for teachers, involving as it does the selection and rearrangement of most pertinent material, may provide the vehicle by which important economies could be attained in the graduate education of teachers. It would help to resolve an over-all problem in teacher education; namely, how to accomplish more in less time.

Grouping of academic fields into categories generally adheres rather closely to subject matter lines. Another type of grouping is based on relationship to basic life activities. Classifications employed might be, for example, citizenship functions, vocational preparation, family responsibilities, or leisure and self-improvement activities. In terms of preparation for teaching, groupings have been developed which pertain to types of teaching assignments such as elementary and secondary-school teaching or the teaching of subject fields. Whatever the plan of classification employed, the aim is to achieve an economy of time for the student by condensing pertinent content from several fields into a fused type of course.

The grouping of academic studies at the graduate level in relationship to their contribution to teacher education is a new concept. It holds the possibility of helping resolve the specificity-generality issue while at the same time preserving the strengths of both theories of graduate program organization.

DEMAND FOR GREATER DEPTH. Another issue that currently is affecting postgraduate programs of teacher education is a growing demand for greater depth of scholarship. Broad area courses, as important as they are as purveyors of general information and molders of attitude, leave much to be desired with respect to depth of training, preciseness of thought and ability to identify relationships in ideas and knowledge. Some broad area courses include many topics that can be treated only superficially. A graduate program for teachers composed entirely of such courses would deprive

intellectual leaders of the opportunity to develop sound and critical scholarship in a closely knit field of knowledge. Presumably, to appreciate, comprehend, and contribute to scholarly inquiry, one should learn to travel the road of the scholar one's self.

In contrast to the survey type course which so often has been included in graduate programs for teacher, it is being suggested that postgraduate programs should provide, in both academic fields and in the professional area, carefully designed courses that lead teachers both to the genesis of scholarship and to the process by which knowledge and wisdom are identified. Such graduate programs for teachers, it is visualized, would include intensive laboratory courses in which the object is to discover new truths rather than to follow recipes; seminars that provide experiences in validation, reconstruction, and critical analysis of documents; and research projects that require the collection and statistical analysis of data according to some predetermined investigational designs.

PROFESSORIAL SPOON-FEEDING VERSUS STUDENT SELF-HELP. The tendency for graduate study to become teacher-centered has raised the issue about whether postgraduate programs for teachers actually provide the degree of independence in scholarship and research that traditionally has characterized graduate work. The time spent in college is short as compared to the span of professional responsibilities during a teaching career. An important criterion of the effectiveness of postgraduate study might be the extent to which it helps the student learn to assume professional responsibilities as independent practitioners. In terms of graduate work for teachers, every professor might well ask these questions: *Have I left the student with a deep and abiding interest in an area of specialization? Have I helped the student to be a better teacher? Have I provided the student with the attitudes, habits, and skills of scholarship? Have I supplied the student with sufficient background information to enable him to think for himself? Have I made the student independent of my guidance?*

Development of capacity for independent scholarship in a professional field requires initial guidance and instruction by professors. Often this is done more economically through lectures and discussions. It would seem essential, however, that graduate programs for teachers should provide opportunities for the student to engage in independent study, self-examination by insight, beliefs, strengths, and weaknesses. This goal may be accomplished, in part, through activities whose sole or major purpose is the inculcation of *independent attitudes and self-direction techniques* and, in part, through the more traditional types of graduate courses.

In order that these objectives be accomplished, it is essential that professors who instruct graduate teachers avoid two common pitfalls. First, they must be assured adequate time to plan class meetings that will foster productive, developmental, professional competence in teachers. Second, they must avoid the error of assuming that wisdom can be attained by the graduate student through oratorical injection.

NATURE AND CONTENT OF THE POSTGRADUATE PROGRAM OF TEACHER EDUCATION

The nature and content of postgraduate programs for teachers are characterized by almost complete variability. Some programs are merely extensions of undergraduate patterns of work; others represent preparation for various educational specialties. Many permit such an extent of election of courses that no two patterns of students' programs may be alike; still others conform rigidly to traditional graduate programs developed on departmental bases.

CONTENT IN POSTGRADUATE COURSES. The question of whether there is appropriate content in postgraduate courses for the education of teachers is the subject of much controversy. The problem arises not only with reference to courses in professional education; it pertains to those in academic fields as well.

The principal approach which has been employed to developing postgraduate courses for teachers in the subject fields has been to extend undergraduate content and meth-

ods of instruction to fifth-year programs. This practice is due, no doubt, to the fact that the undergraduate program is too overloaded to permit sufficient emphasis on all the course content that teachers should study. As the amount of knowledge has increased, and in the face of reluctance of academic departments to eliminate courses, the required courses for teachers have become so numerous that many have had to be placed in postgraduate programs.

Similarly, in the field of professional education, work which was formerly offered in undergraduate programs (for example, history and philosophy of education, tests and measurements) has been crowded into graduate offerings. In fact, in many institutions, many of the courses in education for which junior and senior undergraduate students are eligible may also be taken by graduate students.

The solution to this problem of defining a content for the postgraduate program of teacher education—in both academic subject fields as well as in education—which measures up to the standards of graduate work would seem to lie in a better use of the time allocated to the undergraduate program. A central challenge to the undergraduate college which prepares teachers is how to secure more economy in learning. To keep abreast of expanding knowledge without increasing the time allocated will require improved methods of learning and teaching comparable to the improved practices in other fields.

IMPORTANCE OF PREREQUISITES. One weakness of the practice of extending undergraduate instruction to graduate programs is the waiving of prerequisites. A distinguishing characteristic of graduate-level work is that it is built on a base of foundational undergraduate courses in the field. Without command of the knowledge incorporated in the core of prerequisite courses, graduate study is impossible. When prerequisites are waived, standards for graduate courses must be lowered to compensate for the inadequate backgrounds of students.

A related circumstance which sometimes hampers the prerequisite system for graduate courses is found in the delay

between undergraduate and graduate study which most teachers experience. Many individuals who have taken the required prerequisite courses for graduate work find that their scholarship has suffered in the interval between graduation and entry into graduate school. It is not uncommon for colleges and universities to try to help the teacher bridge this gap in knowledge by permitting a number of undergraduate refresher courses to count as graduate degree requirements.

A better solution to the problems of inadequate preparation or remoteness of undergraduate study would be not to waive prerequisites, or to permit them to be counted as graduate courses, but to develop plans to help students meet prerequisites before undertaking advanced study. Individual review, extension, and correspondence courses provide excellent preparation for bona fide graduate courses. Examinations can serve as a means of testing a student's readiness for postgraduate study in a field. Such procedures, which require only a little foresight and planning, will protect the integrity of graduate work and will help to remedy some of the weaknesses that are identified in postgraduate teacher education.

DIFFERENCE BETWEEN GRADUATE AND UNDERGRADUATE STUDY. Graduate study differs from undergraduate study in both content and approach. At the undergraduate level the student is engaged chiefly in learning what others know, feel, and do; at the graduate level his chief concern is with the verification and extension of his own beliefs and the development of his insight as well as with the augmentation of knowledge through critical scholarship and creative thinking.

Postgraduate programs of teacher education in some institutions have tended to substitute undergraduate-type courses for research. Yet graduate work is traditionally research. Only through emphasis on research, on self-inquiry and systematic scholarship may graduate work elevate the teacher to a level of intellectual development essential for the independent professional practice of teaching. Gen-

erally, graduate programs for the professions have been centered upon the problems of the use of knowledge. Whether this goal should be achieved through graduate study or during a supervised internship is a matter for careful consideration. Decisions must be made relative to the emphasis to be given to the performance phase—internship—of postgraduate teacher education and the scholarly and research aspects that commonly characterize graduate study.

IMPORTANCE OF LIBERAL ARTS FOUNDATIONS FOR TEACHERS. Certain liberal arts foundation fields provide content that is valuable to postgraduate programs of teacher education. Teachers need advanced preparation in such areas as (1) the biological foundations of human behavior; (2) social foundations of education; (3) chemical-physical characteristics of life and matter; (4) physiology of human development; and (5) psychology of learning.

Failure to include much emphasis on such foundation fields in graduate programs for teachers has been due to the restrictions of tight departmental lines and the predominance of pedagogical courses in graduate degree programs offered to or selected by teachers.

Where such foundational courses are offered in an institution, whether in a department of education or in various liberal arts departments, has little bearing on their importance to the professional development of education personnel. Where they are taught is actually an administrative detail that might best be worked out according to the preferences in particular institutions. The important thing is that they be taught by competent instructors and made available to teachers. When such courses are offered in schools or departments of education, as they sometimes are, the practice has usually developed because of reluctance of liberal arts departments to offer them. In some cases where subject-matter departments have tried to offer work for teachers in these basic fields at the graduate level, the treatment has been so technical and remote from educational practice that they have failed to attract support. When these courses concentrate upon content important to the teacher, and are

taught by professors recognized for their *scholarship and pedagogical competence*, by professors both in the content field and in education, they have won praise.

How Much Pedagogy? The amount of pedagogy that should be included in postgraduate teacher education programs has aroused heated debate in academic circles. One reason this problem gives so much difficulty is that it is poorly defined. Often those who condemn the study of pedagogy at the graduate level endorse pedagogical content as important for teachers to master when it is taught in academic departments. In other instances the issue is pointed up by the redundancy that occurs when individuals at the graduate level elect courses in education that overlap work previously taken. Still other reactions point to a lack of confidence in professors who teach pedagogical courses.

Nature of pedagogy. Pedagogy refers to all the knowledge, theory, principles, and techniques that support the professional practice of teaching. As is true in all professions, the foundation of work in the field of education is knowledge. Pedagogical knowledge pertains to all facets of such matters as human development and behavior; to the selection, organization and presentation of content in various subject fields; to the scientific process of learning; to the processes and techniques by which learning is promoted; and to the organization, function and character of normally organized school programs.

Not all pedagogical content is taught in departments of education. The cluster of fields commonly referred to as the *biological foundations of human behavior* offer courses in human genetics, endocrinology, and neurology, appropriate for inclusion as pedagogical content for teachers. The importance of certain aspects of chemistry and physics to the study of the mentally ill, the retarded, the handicapped places such subject matter in the field of professional content. Another cluster of fields which contribute to the preparation of individuals for teaching is the communicative arts. Teaching is, above everything, a communicative art. As Van Doren has so aptly said, "Teachers are first of all

persons who enjoy conversation.”¹ Courses in fields such as sociology, psychology, and political science contain content that has pedagogical utility. It is not customary to classify this type of courses, or aspects of particular courses, in these various academic fields as pedagogical; yet the knowledge they treat is essential to the teacher's professional competence. The point is that the answer to the question of whether courses in pedagogy have content or not will not be found in stereotype classifications of departmental offerings, but rather in the professional activities of teachers and in the course which will produce professional competence.

Departments of education, like other professional departments, endeavor to select content appropriate to the professional requirements of educational practice. In large institutions the tendency is for all content with pedagogical value to be offered under the sponsorship of the professional department. Smaller colleges usually attempt to utilize academic courses which contribute to professional knowledge. Often the negative attitudes toward pedagogical content grow out of resentments about where the pedagogy is housed in the institution. If the position can be taken that the department in which courses containing pedagogical content are taught should be a matter of convenience to a particular institution, greater agreement can be achieved relative to which pedagogical content should be made available to teachers at the graduate level.

Quality of staff for pedagogical courses. Some of the reactions to pedagogical courses in reality are expressions of “no confidence” in those who teach education courses. It would seem that the interest of all concerned would be best served by having only thoroughly competent persons, whose scholarly and teaching interests are so oriented, teach pedagogical courses. This assumption rests on two conditions: one is competence; the other, interest. Both qualifications should reasonably be required of instructors of courses in-

¹ O. Meredith Wilson and Others, *College Teaching as a Career* (Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1958).

cluding pedagogical content without regard to the administrative placement of the work in the institution.

With respect to competence, various criteria must be applied. Some would relate to the general level and nature of the intellectual acuity, scholarly commitments, cultural background and skill in communication. Others would pertain to knowledge of subject matter itself. To teach such pedagogical subjects as educational psychology, statistics, measurement, philosophy of education, history of education, or educational sociology, professors obviously need both a high level of subject-matter knowledge and a sound pedagogical orientation. Teachers of educational psychology, to be specific, should be expected to be sound psychologists who are so recognized by full membership in the American Psychological Association; but just as important, they should also be competent educationalists recognized by full membership in the American Educational Research Association. Similar dual competence should be expected of professors who offer graduate courses for teachers in other fields whose content has pedagogical implications. The standard should apply whether the courses are administered by departments of education or parent academic departments.

Translation of theory into practice. Related to the question of how much pedagogical emphasis should be permitted in postgraduate teacher education programs is the issue of how pedagogical theory and knowledge can best be translated into successful professional practice. One learns, it is generally recognized, that which is practiced. To be a good theorist, one needs experience in theorizing; to be a good teacher, in the sense of being a skilled performer, one must practice teaching.

One aspect of this problem promotes disagreement among those responsible for postgraduate programs of teacher education; namely, whether or not learning to teach, as in the internship, is a suitable element of graduate work. The issue of recognizing for graduate credit a course devoted to the development of skill is not limited, of course, to the field of education. It applies to all subjects which terminate

in skill applications such as art, music, public speaking, drama, and certain phases of the fields of engineering, medicine, law and other professions. Some would make the decision as to whether supervised practice should be included in graduate programs on the basis of the mental-physical components of the activity. They would judge the degree of intellectual activity required by the physical practice. The higher the intellectual activity, the more worthy the work is considered. One of the chief differences between five-year and six-year programs for teachers is found in the manner of accrediting practice. Some require successful teaching experience as a prerequisite to graduate study; some incorporate practice in their fifth-year programs; others require a full sixth year to be devoted to the internship. A number of institutions solve this problem of accrediting practice by requiring interns to participate in a concurrent theory and content seminar for which graduate credit is given. Many variations on this theme are found in experimental programs now being developed.

HOW MUCH SUBJECT-MATTER SPECIALIZATION? Parallel to the question of "how much pedagogy?" is one which relates to the amount and nature of the subject matter which should be included or required of teachers in postgraduate teacher education programs. Many academic professors naively assume that if "pedagogical courses" could be excluded, teachers would automatically select existing subject matter courses for graduate study. Experience has demonstrated that such would not be the case. The answer to the question "How much subject matter specialization should be included in graduate programs for teachers?" depends upon a number of factors.

Adaptation of subject content to professional objectives. Traditional graduate degree programs in academic subject departments fail to attract the interest of teachers because their objectives do not always conform closely to the professional objectives of individuals seeking to become better teachers in elementary and secondary schools. Aside from the fact that many teachers either lack the prerequisites or

the recency of scholarship to compete in the intensive Ph.D. races that comprise graduate work in most academic fields, they are discouraged by the narrowness and specificity of emphasis.

How much subject matter can be included in graduate programs for teachers depends, first of all, on the willingness of academic departments to offer graduate courses designed to expand the teacher's knowledge, scholarship, and insight into the subject fields common to the curriculums of elementary and secondary schools. Some departments of mathematics have set good examples in this direction, for example, by offering to teachers courses in the foundations of algebra and geometry and the history of the number system. Such courses are rigorous, they meet all the standards for graduate work. Typically, they are open to other graduate students majoring in mathematics as well as to teachers. When offered under competent instruction, they have attracted substantial enrollments of teachers.

Emphasis on generalized scholarship. How much subject matter can be included in graduate programs of teachers depends on the extent to which the graduate work in content fields can be made to emphasize general qualities of scholarship, e.g., the discovery and use of knowledge, critical thinking, problem solving, and the formulation of principles. Teachers work in a variety of subject fields. The expense of providing specialized graduate courses in all fields will be prohibitive for most institutions. To make subject-matter courses available to both elementary- and secondary-school teachers will require ingenuity and willingness to indulge in interdepartmental cooperation to design courses which include content that will be significant to teachers from different fields and levels and emphasize the qualities of scholarship and intellectual development that are common to graduate study.

PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT VERSUS PROFESSIONAL FITNESS FOR TEACHING. Mention should be made of another problem which must be faced by those responsible for planning graduate work for teachers: the question of personal devel-

opment versus professional competence in teacher education. The public concern that youth be taught to be personally fit often becomes confused with the goals of preparation for teaching. Obviously, teachers need the kind of liberal education which will prepare them for effective citizenship, help them to maintain sound mental and physical health, and give to their lives the aid of high moral principles. Yet should the emphasis in postgraduate programs be on personal development for teachers or on the projection of professional knowledge and teaching skill? In part this problem is one which should be faced at the time of certification and employment for teaching or at the admission point for graduate study, but the question remains: Has the graduate school a responsibility for developing personal fitness of individuals who teach?

QUESTIONS THAT NEED TO BE ANSWERED. Out of the foregoing arise questions such as the following which may well concern those responsible for postgraduate programs:

1. Is the course arrangement economical from the point of view of results in relation to effort expended?
2. Is there an adequate number of survey courses covering the important foundations for effective teaching?
3. Are there courses that provide education in depth?
4. Is there adequate provision for specialization?
5. Do students have an opportunity to acquire the tools of independent study?
6. Are students given contact with actual teaching situations?
7. Are students provided with appropriate theoretical orientation?
8. Have the courses a substantial content?
9. Are the courses truly graduate in character?
10. Will the courses add to the student's personal as well as his professional competency?

POSTGRADUATE PROGRAMS OF TEACHER EDUCATION

Another source of guidance and information for graduate programs for teachers will be found in the many programs of

postgraduate teacher education already in operation. These programs are characterized by a high degree of diversity. It would appear that the leaders in the field of teacher education have amazingly different ideas about the character of postgraduate work, or how best to provide this phase of the teacher's continuing professional education. Some of the degrees awarded are professional in character; some are non-professional graduate degrees, and some are combinations of the two. Some emphasize advanced course work in pedagogy; others include course work in the subject-matter fields; some emphasize theory only; others provide in various ways for substantial amounts of practice, including the internship. Some emphasize methods and techniques, and others emphasize the liberal arts and pedagogical foundations of teaching. Most programs reflect decisions or points of view with reference to the major problems and issues, the nature and content of postgraduate teacher education already discussed.

SPECIAL FIFTH- AND SIXTH-YEAR PROGRAMS OF TEACHER EDUCATION. The need to increase the length of programs of teacher education has long been recognized. Until recently, a number of factors, such as poor pay, shortage of teachers, low level of preparation, and short tenure of many teachers, prevented such a development. In the past decade, however, a number of experimental programs, many of them aided by subsidies from The Fund for the Advancement of Education of The Ford Foundation, have been testing ways of achieving this goal.

As yet, the data available on the various experimental plans are insufficient to permit adequate evaluation. Also, published descriptions of programs often are out of date with actual developments. Some programs, too, have not had the benefit of publicity. An attempt is made here, nevertheless, to present samples of the various types of fifth- and sixth-year programs to illustrate the various ways in which programs of postgraduate teacher education are being approached.

The Harvard program for elementary and secondary school teachers. The Harvard Graduate School of Education offers six programs at the master's degree level:

1. Master of Education for experienced teachers
2. Master of Education for general purposes
3. Master of Education for inexperienced candidates in elementary education
4. Master of Arts in Teaching for recent college graduates who plan to teach in secondary schools
5. Master of Education in special fields
6. Master of Education in the academic year institute

A minimum of eight half-year courses, which ordinarily can be taken in one academic year, must be completed to qualify for the master's degree. The degree is awarded when the candidate's record represents a high level of accomplishment. There is no thesis requirement, language requirement, or comprehensive examination.

All students must take a one-half-year course from the social foundations, one from the psychological foundations, and one or more from the principles of teaching group. Secondary-school teachers must take two half-year arts and sciences courses in the candidate's field of concentration. Inexperienced or teachers with limited experience may secure experience under either of two plans:

Plan A: the apprenticeship plan. This plan combines graduate study in the candidate's teaching field with a systematic introduction through course work and apprentice teaching to the problems of secondary education.

Plan B: the internship program. This plan provides a combination of graduate study and paid, responsible employment as a teacher. The program starts with a six-week summer session orientation program, followed by one half an academic year in graduate study and one half employed as a teacher in one of a number of cooperating schools.

The brief description provided here does not give the many interesting details pertaining to these programs. It is clear, however, that the emphasis in both types of post-

graduate degree plans is on practice, under supervision, with related study of the foundation fields of education as well as in the subject-matter fields of the student's major. It should be mentioned that these programs are intended primarily for graduates of liberal arts colleges who have had little or no previous pedagogical preparation. In effect, both plans recognize as graduate credit work that is commonly included in pre-service undergraduate programs in many institutions.

The Yale Master of Arts in teaching. Yale University offers a two-year program leading to the degree of Master of Arts in Teaching. All students are enrolled in the Graduate School during both years. In the first year each student takes three regular departmental courses in the subject he is preparing to teach; all students are required to take a graduate course in the history and philosophy of education. In the second year the student serves as a regular teacher in one of 16 cooperating schools in the New Haven area. Along with their teaching assignments, they attend a graduate seminar which attempts to relate teaching experience to the subject matter they are teaching. After the first six weeks of the second year, the student may be certified by the Connecticut State Board of Education as a qualified teacher and receive regular salary as a first-year teacher.

Admission to the program is made on the basis of the adequacy of the applicant's preparation, his sincerity of purpose, and his adaptability to the program as judged by:

1. A transcript of the student's undergraduate record
2. His Graduate Record Examination scores on the Aptitude Test and the Advanced Test in the field in which he plans to teach
3. Three letters of recommendation from persons who have known the applicant and his work
4. A statement by the applicant telling what he believes to be the strong and weak points of his preparation, the qualities that he considers to have been particularly good or unsatisfactory in teachers he himself has had, his ex-

perience if any with children and adolescents, and his specific plan for a teaching career, including the kind of schools in which he would teach, the age level of students, and the subject

The prerequisites include a reading knowledge of French or German. The Office of Teacher Training has charge of the initiation, organization, and coordination of all field activities. Among these activities are a number of special conferences and institutes such as the conferences in subject-matter fields, the Yale Summer Languages Institute, the Yale Shakespeare Institute, the summer program in American studies, the Yale Institute for Independent Schools, and the John Hay Fellows.

*The Arkansas teacher education experiment.*² One of the earlier and more radical departures from traditional patterns of teacher education was found in the Arkansas plan. This plan deferred the professional education of teachers until the fifth year, and in certain respects it represented an extension of undergraduate work into what otherwise might constitute a first year of graduate study. The year's work consisted of twenty weeks of internship plus training in certain theoretical foundations.

After two days of orientation, three weeks of directed observation in the public schools follow. Then the next three months are devoted to seminars. The 20-week practicum is accompanied by conferences and seminars. The student receives 30 semester hours of credit, 18 in undergraduate education from the college from which he earned his undergraduate degree, and 12 in graduate credit from the University of Arkansas. He also receives a stipend of \$125.00 per month.

This program has been a kind of pedagogical storm center with many conflicting points of view as to its effectiveness. The original program was a cooperative one in-

²D. D. McBrien, "The Arkansas Teacher Education Experiment," *Seventh Yearbook*, American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Chicago, 1951, pp. 57-62.

volving the state University and state colleges. Since the program has been in operation, certain other state colleges have established their own master's degree programs.

The Boston College Master of Education program for elementary-school teachers. It is hypothesized by Boston College officials that elementary-school teachers will be best served by a curriculum in which half the courses relate to professional education and half to the humanistic disciplines. The degree program includes five three-credited courses in professional education, three of which are required, namely a course in educational research, a course in the philosophy of education, and a seminar in elementary education. The program also requires five three-credit liberal arts and science courses, namely a course in literary criticism, a course in concepts of modern mathematics, a course in physical science, a course in history and the historian, and a course in philosophy (liberty and authority); each is taught by a subject matter specialist.

The professional courses are organized to present a synthesis of basic theory in which three approaches are made: (1) theory as developed in the philosophy of education; (2) theory as enriched and tested in educational research; and (3) theory and its implications for practice developed in the Seminar in Elementary Education. Candidates must satisfy the general academic standards for admission to the Boston College Graduate School. A full-time student can finish the courses in two semesters and one summer. There is no thesis requirement.

*Graduate programs for teachers at George Peabody College for teachers.*³ The Peabody program is primarily one of advanced professional study rather than graduate study. The Master of Arts degree includes all first year students except those who have particular competence in music and who prefer the program leading to the Master of Music degree. The program is organized for teachers, librarians,

³ Charles R. Spaln, "Graduate Programs in Education at George Peabody College for Teachers," 50th Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education, Part II (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1951).

supervisors, and administrators. Twenty-seven quarter-hours in education and psychology are prerequisite to entrance upon the program. Forty-eight quarter-hours are required for graduation, which are distributed to give the student a major teaching field and a minor of 16 credits. The student may submit a thesis in lieu of six credits if he chooses to do so. The student must include in his program a course in curriculum construction, educational administration, and human development and guidance.

Peabody also provides for further advanced graduate study, a two-year Master of Education degree. This program requires one year of 36 credits plus the completion of a professional project. The program is very flexible and may be planned almost entirely in terms of a student's needs. The planning and supervision of the work is in the hands of a faculty committee of three members.

*Graduate program for teachers at Cornell University.*⁴ The School of Education of Cornell University is a group of coordinate departments and divisions of education throughout the university and is not an autonomous college. When students expect to teach subjects for which a fifth year of work is required, the candidate must be admitted to the Graduate School as a candidate for a master's degree, with a major in some field of education, for his last year of work. Graduates may take majors or minors leading to advanced degrees in fields such as administration, supervision, curriculum construction, secondary education, educational psychology, extension education, guidance and personnel administration, home economics education, industrial and technical education, science education, nature study, conservation education, history of education, philosophy of education, agricultural education, moral education, and social studies education.

In addition to the completion of a major in a subject-matter field in one of the colleges the student may take pro-

⁴ A. L. Winsor, "Graduate Programs in Education at Cornell University," *Graduate Study in Education*, 50th Yearbook, Part I (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1951)

essional work to meet state certification requirements. For applicants who have had teaching experience the Master of Science in Education is available. Candidates for this degree work under a special committee and must take a minimum of two terms or five summer sessions of six weeks each, prepare a thesis or problem, and pass a comprehensive final examination. The major must be in a field of education but the minor may be in a subject-matter field.

*The Stanford University Program.*⁵ The Master of Arts in Education is the basic teacher-preparation degree offered by the School of Education. This program requires one year of graduate study. There are three types of master of arts programs: one emphasizes research, another stresses the preparation of the master teacher, and a third urges the preparation of special service workers in the secondary school. Only the research program requires a thesis. All programs require that the candidate take work in educational psychology and educational sociology, and in at least two of the following: philosophy, history of education, educational hygiene, administration, curriculum, and guidance.

Each candidate selects a field of concentration which involves one third or more of his course work. In addition the candidate is encouraged to take up to one third of his work in fields other than professional education. Individual program planning is done by the student with the aid of a faculty advisor who represents his major field of interest.

COOPERATIVE PROGRAMS FOR THE GRADUATE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS.⁶ Many institutions, both private and public, have developed programs for shared responsibility in the field of teacher education. Vanderbilt University, George Peabody College, and a number of other institutions of Nashville, Tennessee, have such an arrangement, as have Harvard University and a number of other institutions in

⁵ A. John Bartky, "Graduate Programs in Education at Stanford University," *50th Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education, Part II* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1951)

⁶ Robert H. Koenker, *Co-operative Graduate Programs*, Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, Indiana, 1959 (mimeographed).

the Boston area. The state of Indiana has a plan of graduate studies leading to the doctorate, involving the state university, Purdue University, the two state teachers colleges, Butler University, and others. The states of Michigan, Ohio, North Carolina, New Mexico, and Oklahoma have more or less elaborate plans of cooperation. Koenker reports 55 institutions having such programs among 229 institutions replying to a questionnaire sent to some 552 colleges and universities in February 1959.

*The Wisconsin cooperative state-wide program.*⁷ Working under legislation providing for the coordinating of higher education in Wisconsin and upon the recommendation of the State Coordinating Committee on graduate studies, a state-wide graduate program for the education of teachers has been established involving cooperation among the several state colleges and the university. Some of the principles of action agreed upon in the establishment of this program were the following:

1. Besides the common prerequisites for graduate study, teaching experience is required. It was felt that certification requirements were essentially undergraduate work and should be treated as such, and that persons without teaching experience were not ready to profit greatly from graduate study. Liberal arts graduates without teaching experience may meet these prerequisites by an internship and certain designated courses in professional education.

2. A distinction is made between graduate study and undergraduate study in purpose, content, and method. The tendency to extend undergraduate purposes, content, and methods into the years set aside for graduate studies is found detrimental to the broader purposes of education. If undergraduate study is thought of principally as getting acquainted with the thinking of others, graduate study should be primarily a period of learning to think for one's self; if undergraduate study is thought of chiefly as a pouring-in

⁷ State Coordinating Committee on Graduate Studies, *Cooperative Experimental Master's Degree Programs for Elementary and Secondary School Teachers*, Madison, Wisconsin, 1959 (mimeographed).

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process (which most persons would deny), graduate study should be thought of primarily as a digging-out process; if undergraduate study is thought of as closely teacher-directed, graduate study should be thought of chiefly as self help; and, finally, if undergraduate study is thought to be a kind of happy-hunting ground for the proponents of survey courses, graduate study is that for the seminar and individual research. There are, of course, other differences.

3. Emphasis is placed upon the liberal arts and pedagogical foundations of practice and less upon technique courses. Techniques are thought best developed on the job through supervised internships and full-time employment where the conditions of practice are well known rather than in courses where participants merely talk about them. Among the liberal arts and pedagogical foundations emphasized are the following: the biological foundations of human behavior; the physical world and man; the social foundations of behavior; the philosophical and historical foundations of practice; the psychological foundations of practice; and the language arts as tools of good thinking.

4. Emphasis is placed upon more adequate controls over the subject matter to be taught or activities to be directed. Adequate understanding of children and child development, of learning and evaluative processes, and of the liberal arts and pedagogical foundations are not only important in the education of teachers but also is a more adequate control over subject matter and the tools of scholarship. Every effort is made to strengthen the teacher's competency in this respect. At least half of the work must be taken in an area of subject-matter specialization.

5. Finally, emphasis is placed upon the interdisciplinary, "all-university" character of teacher education. The education of teachers has become through a turn of events, in the minds of many, synonymous with methods and practice teaching. Important as these may be, they constitute only a small part of the teacher education program which can best be performed on an interdisciplinary, all-university basis. Not only do the liberal arts and pedagogical founda-

tions to teaching and subject-matter competency need to be re-emphasized, but also the kinds of training that cut across departmental lines. The modern university is a highly compartmentalized affair, and this compartmentalization has served a useful purpose; but most elementary- and secondary-school teachers need more breadth as well as depth in their education.

DOCTORAL PROGRAMS FOR CLASSROOM TEACHERS

In addition to the fifth- and sixth-year postgraduate teacher education programs, some institutions are extending graduate work for classroom teachers to include the doctorate. Two questions about these doctoral programs for teachers seem to be uppermost in the minds of many people: (1) Do teachers need the doctorate? and (2) If so, which doctorate can best serve their professional requirements, the Doctor of Philosophy or the Doctor of Education?

DO CLASSROOM TEACHERS NEED THE DOCTORATE? In considering this subject, two restrictions are made: (1) the discussion is limited to the education of elementary- and secondary-school teachers; and (2) under consideration is only the preparation of classroom teachers with no consideration being given to the professional training needed by school administrators or other educational specialists.

The need for the doctorate for precollege teachers must be considered in the light of two rather important facts. First, not too long ago most teachers had little or no professional training, and few held college degrees. Most states now require graduation from college to teach in either elementary or secondary schools. An increasing number of teachers have completed the master's degree and already a few hold doctorates. The new emphasis on fifth- and sixth-year graduate programs for teachers will undoubtedly focus attention on the doctorate as a goal for classroom practitioners. It will doubtless be many years, however, before any large proportion of the teaching body will be brought to this level of preparation. In this situation the question of a doctor's degree would seem to be chiefly an academic one.

Second, there is currently a great shortage of teachers, which necessitates employment of substandard and special-permit teachers.

Times and conditions, however, change. There is much discussion today of teaching teams and master teachers. A physician is surrounded, under favorable conditions, by a host of assistants: nurses, technicians, and interns. Possibly the master teacher of the future and a holder of a doctor's degree will be given similar assistance: clerical assistance, teaching assistance, and technicians. Some of the drudgery will be removed from teaching through a wider use of machines. Also, new concepts of class size are emerging to supplant the rigid, across-the-board, uniform class size now found in so many school systems. A class size varied according to purpose, persons, conditions, and methods of teaching may be employed. Taken together these may offer one solution to the perennial shortage of teachers and accomplish the dual ends of paying master teachers higher salaries and reducing the over-all, per-unit cost of education.

The consolidation of schools has brought about more specialization in teaching, better-trained teachers, and higher pay for school personnel. Possibly some of these changes promote the feeling that more teachers need to advance to the level of the doctorate.

THE DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY OR THE DOCTOR OF EDUCATION DEGREE? Whether classroom teachers will be served best by the Doctor of Philosophy or Doctor of Education degree depends somewhat on the characteristics of each degree in a given institution. In some universities, the requirements for the two degrees may be practically identical. As these degrees are generally conceived, the Doctor of Philosophy is considered to be primarily a research degree while the Doctor of Education places more emphasis on preparation for professional practice.

If the differences between the Doctor of Philosophy and Doctor of Education degrees prevail, classroom teachers will need elements of both. They will benefit from the emphasis placed in Doctor of Philosophy programs on developing

research skill, creative inquiry, problem solving, and education in depth. Teachers holding a doctorate should be more capable than those with less training to formulate value judgments for themselves, refine principles, develop designs for research, conduct evaluations, and understand the technical studies of other educational scholars. On the other hand, classroom teachers need to learn how to deal with professional problems associated with the adaption of subject matter to the purposes and conditions of classroom instruction, at various levels, which are more commonly emphasized to a greater extent in Doctor of Education degree programs.

Some leaders in graduate work believe that a new type of degree called by a title such as Doctor of Arts in Teaching which will combine the strengths of the research and professional emphases is needed for both precollege and college teachers. Others hold that the scope of the present Doctor of Philosophy degree can be expanded to meet this need. Whether the staunch traditions of the Doctor of Philosophy degree will permit it to adapt its requirements to the goal of classroom teachers is a debatable question.

All of the foundation fields in education offer content suitable for inclusion in the Doctor of Philosophy degree on a level of quality equal to programs in such fields as plant pathology, bacteriology, genetics, agricultural economics, and rural sociology. The problem faced is how to provide for training in the translation of knowledge into professional action. Possibly for this reason, it must be admitted that both the Doctor of Philosophy and Doctor of Education degrees are needed, each for a different purpose.

Recent developments in the pattern for the Doctor of Education degree at Harvard University make it more in character and function like the Doctor of Medicine degree. Substituted for the academic type of dissertation is a more practical form of advanced internship training which usually includes the completion of several professional studies in actual school situations. Like the tradition in the field of medicine, this Doctor of Education degree emphasizes the mastery of professional information, the study of profes-

sional problems, the discovery and use of knowledge, and the translation of knowledge into successful practice. Such attainments, it can be readily recognized, are closely associated with the graduate study goals of classroom teachers.

ADMINISTRATION OF POSTGRADUATE PROGRAMS

Administration of postgraduate teacher education programs depend somewhat on whether graduate or professional degrees are offered. The graduate school usually administers graduate degrees and may also control the professional degree programs, as is true at the University of Colorado and in about two-thirds of the institutions which offer both types of degrees. In other situations graduate professional degrees are administered by schools of education. Some arrangements provide for varying degrees of joint responsibility between graduate schools and professional divisions.

Points at which administrative controls are exercised include: admission, transfer of credits, curricula, staffs, course, and graduation requirements. In independent professional schools and colleges these functions remain with the dean and faculty of the school. In composite institutions, these responsibilities are discharged by the dean of the graduate school under policies formulated by the graduate faculty. In some situations considerable departmental autonomy exists within broad policy guide lines; in others, departments have little authority. Certain institutions accord much freedom and great responsibility to individual graduate professors; others place dependence upon committees of faculty members.

Important to postgraduate programs of teacher education is the interest of those in charge of the administration of programs in the problem of providing suitable graduate study for teachers. When it is assumed by the administration that the status quo of graduate study is sufficient, or when the graduate education of teachers is given low priority, progress toward developing programs of graduate work for educational practitioners will be slow. In an age when quality in education depends so heavily upon excellence in

teaching, leadership for graduate programs faces a heavy obligation to guide the energies and resources of graduate faculties in the development of better postgraduate teacher education programs.

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CHAPTER 16

Programs for Continuing Professional Development

Perhaps no other profession maintains such extensive programs designed to promote the professional development of its licensed members as does teaching. Teachers attend summer sessions, enroll in extension courses while on the job, and participate in institutes, workshops, and curriculum development projects. In many school systems, such professional activities are required; in others they are encouraged by the inducement of financial advancement, and in most of the rest they are strongly endorsed by the school board, the administration, and the faculty.

Supervisors, who have been employed extensively in county, town, and city school systems, give much of their time to helping teachers plan in-service educational activities. Institutions which provide preparation for teaching share extensively in such activities. Professional organizations at local, state, and national levels lend their support to all such efforts to improve the competence of teachers.

NEED FOR CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

The basic reasons that the teaching profession devotes an inordinate amount of time and energy to promoting pro-

grams of continuing professional development are (1) the relatively low level of preparation with which teachers begin work; (2) the differences in educational programs that prevail from school to school; (3) the impact of new knowledge upon individual courses and school curriculums; and (4) the multiplicity of unsolved professional problems that confront teachers.

TEACHERS ONLY PARTIALLY PREPARED. Teachers, unlike doctors or lawyers who experience longer periods of preparation, begin their careers upon graduation from four years of college as fully certified practitioners; yet they are only partially prepared. In twelve states, elementary-school teachers need only two years of college for professional certification.¹ In many others provisional certificates are granted which for all practical purposes circumvent the prevailing four-year college study requirement. Even four-year college graduates of better institutions are poorly prepared for teaching, by standards for other professions and in comparison with the practices of some other countries.

The typical college graduate enters teaching with deficiencies in liberal education, in the subject field of his specialization, and in necessary professional preparation. His basic liberal education often has not prepared* him to write and speak his own language correctly and effectively, much less the language of another nation. Many teachers omit the study of a second language entirely in their college studies. Their preparation for citizenship responsibilities has been found to be weak in such fields as economics, world history and geography, local, state, and national government, and in such important fields as those of ethics, science, and sociology.

The long-established practice of requiring teachers to teach several subjects has encouraged the continuation of the pattern of distributing college courses into a minimum of three fields.

¹ D. C. Woellner and M. A. Wood, *Requirements for Certification of Teachers, Counselors, Librarians, Administrators, for Elementary Schools, Secondary Schools, Junior Colleges, 1956-57* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1957), p. 123.

Originally the major-and-two-minor pattern served the useful purpose of forcing the student to gain breadth in his college studies. With the development of programs of general education during the first two years of college work designed to accomplish this same objective, many institutions which prepare teachers still insist upon students distributing their specialization among several fields. In general, the result is that the student is not well prepared to teach in any field. Another factor that perpetuates the multisubject preparation has been the existence in many states of the small high school. Small schools, of necessity, need teachers who can meet the minimum legal qualifications for teaching several subjects rather than those who are well prepared to teach one.

Upon graduation from college teachers are only partially prepared in the art of teaching. In spite of the improvements in the professional preparation, particularly in the laboratory aspects of the program, most teachers do not undergo an internship or sustained period of apprenticeship as do members of other professions. They enter teaching with only an introduction to the professional knowledge about human learning, growth and development, philosophy, history, and organization of education in a democratic society. Their actual practice in teaching a class group is often limited to as little as 15 to 20 hours, and this under the close scrutiny of a supervising teacher.

Many have had little preparation for participation in curriculum development or for assuming responsibilities for other duties which teachers must perform. Classroom teachers often function in capacities that are far removed from their traditional job of pure instruction. Thus, they are expected to perform as guidance counselors, public-relations personnel, social-club workers, dramatists, artists, and as the parents' answer to: "What's wrong with our schools?" Some teachers find that their pre-service preparation has little to do with these extraneous chores that most teachers have to assume once they arrive in a teaching situation.

ADJUSTMENT TO PHILOSOPHY AND PROCEDURES OF SCHOOL SYSTEM. Because of the firmly established policy of local

control of schools, and as a result of community and pupil population differences, schools tend to be unique and individualistic. The philosophy and organization, as well as the curricular emphasis, in a particular school are the product of many factors. They depend upon the historical evolution of education, the educational aspirations of the people, the community's economic and industrial development, the character of leadership the school has enjoyed, and a wide variety of forces that affect school programs.

Beginning teachers need help to adjust to the philosophy and procedure of the employing school system. Programs of in-service education are designed to provide such assistance.²

KEEPING ABREAST OF NEW KNOWLEDGE. Members of every profession must keep abreast of new knowledge as it develops and affects their professional practice. Teaching is no exception. Today's teacher of mathematics and physics, for example, needs to be almost completely re-educated in his subject field.³ Those who are currently graduating and entering teaching will find their subject-matter preparation out of date in a few years unless they continue to study. All teachers need to be in touch with new knowledge that affects community life, state, national, and world affairs. In short, the teacher should continue striving to be a well-educated person as well as an expert in his field of specialization. This obligation requires diligent scholarship.

SOLUTION OF PRESSING EDUCATIONAL PROBLEMS. Another need for programs of continuing professional development for teachers is to permit systematic study of pressing educational problems. In recent years, a few school systems have begun to encourage research by classroom teachers. Some have established central research services to help solve problems confronting teachers and schools. Others have made it possible for teachers to be transferred from teaching to re-

² National Society for the Study of Education, *In-service Education for Teachers, Supervisors, and Administrators* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1957).

³ K. C. Kelly, "National Science Foundation's Program in Education in the Sciences," *Educational Record*, 38 (April, 1957), pp. 91-99.

search on a part- or full-time basis, for specific periods, to conduct research projects important to the school system. Programs of in-service education have been designed specifically to encourage teachers to study the problems that confront them in their classrooms. As a result, teachers have often become more competent as research scholars and have produced results that have improved the schools they serve.

The success of an individual in teaching may depend almost as much on the quality of the program of in-service education as upon the pre-service preparation. Studies have shown that teachers who have the advantage of rich programs of continuing professional development adjust more easily and successfully to teaching, make greater improvement during their initial years of employment, and have a better chance of rising to positions of leadership in the profession.⁴ Hence, both preparing institutions and employing school systems have a joint responsibility for providing programs of continuing professional development.

Though this responsibility has been generally recognized, it has yet to be met with systematic and coordinated programs of in-service education in most states.

LEADERSHIP FROM EMPLOYING SCHOOL SYSTEMS

Major leadership for programs of continuing professional development has been assumed by the employing school system. Assistance has been given by colleges and by state departments of public instruction. Evidences of the extent that responsibility in this field has been assumed by local school systems are the number of supervisors employed and the amount of support provided for supervision.⁵

ORIENTATION TO TEACHING. The primary objective of programs of continuing professional development for the new teacher is orientation to teaching. Inasmuch as teachers are

⁴ Herman G. Richey, "Growth of the Modern Conception of In-Service Education," *56th Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1957), pp. 64-66.

⁵ *Educational Supervision: A Leadership Service*, Southern States Work Conference, Florida Department of Education, Tallahassee, 1955.

only introduced to teaching during their pre-service programs of preparation, the school system must help them to adjust to the total teacher responsibilities. This involves, in many cases, helping teachers to learn the duties related to such problems as administering discipline, organization of courses, counseling students, supervising pupil activities, testing and evaluation, and working with parents and other teachers.

Such professional weaknesses in the beginning teacher are not due necessarily to inefficiency on the part of the institutions offering pre-service programs of preparation. They may result more from the fact that programs of teacher preparation, even those of four years' duration, are too short to permit sufficient time to develop a sound general education, scholarship in the subject field to be taught, and skill in the art of teaching. Even if more time were available at the pre-service level, it would be impossible to develop fully competent teachers in many institutions because of limited and inadequate laboratory facilities for observation and practice teaching available to prospective teachers. In many institutions, the final preparation of the teacher, of necessity, must wait until the teacher is employed before adequate facilities for practice are available to him. This automatically places a heavy burden for providing the final stages of teacher preparation upon the employing school system.

College officials who counsel prospective teachers often point out to them the wisdom of accepting employment in a school system which provides adequate supervisory assistance to promote the continuing professional development of teachers. Schools have learned that investments in supervision and in-service educational services to teachers pay good dividends in attracting the best prospective teachers. With the growing shortage of teachers, the availability of outstanding programs of professional assistance to beginning teachers will increasingly become an asset to a school system.

SERVICES OF SUPERVISION. The services of supervision have been so poorly directed, or improperly employed in many school systems, that supervision has fallen into a state of disrepute. Teachers have rebelled against the authority of su-

pervisors. Negative attitudes toward programs of in-service education have often prevailed and communities have objected to the cost of these services.⁶

Such reactions have been due to failure to define clearly the function of supervision and to identify the services that it should and can best provide. School systems which concentrate supervisory services on programs designed to improve or re-train experienced teachers, while ignoring the professional needs of beginning teachers, risk the development of antagonisms toward supervision by both groups of teachers. The older teachers resent the efforts to make them change their ways; the beginning teachers become discouraged because they are not receiving help.

At its worst, supervision becomes another name for hypercritical reactions to any and all work that the classroom teacher performs. Constant authoritarian displays on the part of the individual in a supervisory position cause needless tensions to arise. In an atmosphere pervaded by poor supervisor-teacher relationships, faculty morale soon deteriorates.

At its best, supervision becomes inspirational in character, encouraging maximum professional development and cooperative attitudes in the teacher. When constructive or creative supervision is present, the school, the system, and the individual teachers receive optimum benefits.⁷

Guide to new teachers. In terms of improving the professional competence of teachers, it has been advocated that supervision should be concentrated upon helping new teachers continue their professional development during the first three or four years of their careers.⁸ It is argued that if supervisors help beginning teachers when they need it most,

⁶ J. M. Lalng, "Search of Reputability for Disreputable Supervision," *National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin*, 42 (March, 1938), pp. 34-49.

⁷ Inga Olla Helseth and L. J. Stiles, *Supervision As Guidance* (Williamsburg, Va.: The Virginia Gazette Press, 1916), p. 79.

⁸ Lindley J. Stiles, "Supervision: Guiding the Professional Growth of Beginning Teachers," *Viewpoints on Educational Issues and Problems* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Bulletin, September 10, 1952), pp. 286-93.

level to the importance of continuing their professional development on the job, and who find in the organized program stimulating opportunities to extend their knowledge of the subjects taught and skill in teaching, will be more likely to respond favorably to programs of in-service education.

A common mistake of school systems is to require, or in various ways to coerce, participation by teachers in in-service activities even though they have already achieved professional maturity and competence. Although good teachers are always endeavoring to improve, they soon reach a point where they prefer the freedom to direct their own professional study and research. Efforts to treat such teachers as apprentices lead only to resentment of in-service activities and may destroy faculty morale. Such methods also tend to deploy a school system's resources away from young teachers who, because of the inadequacy of programs of pre-service preparation, need help to achieve professional maturity.

CONTRIBUTIONS OF INSTITUTIONS FOR TEACHER EDUCATION

Institutions for teacher education have assumed considerable responsibility for helping improve the professional competence of teachers in service. Their efforts usually have been pointed toward providing extension and summer courses; organizing institutes, conferences, study groups; and less frequently, stimulating teacher participation in research. A few have endeavored to provide follow-up services to help their graduates make the transition from college to teaching.¹⁰

Because many individuals in the United States have become teachers without finishing college, there has been a tremendous demand for college courses appropriate to undergraduate degree programs for teachers. In addition, certifi-

¹⁰ E. Fite, "Follow-up Program for the Master of Teaching Degree Graduate," *Peabody Journal of Education*, 34 (March, 1957), pp. 290-96.

cation requirements for administrative positions and the professional advantages associated with the accumulation of course credits and degrees (better positions, higher pay, and professional status) have combined to create an unprecedented demand for formal courses at the graduate level. The summer session and extension programs have carried heavy responsibility for this work.

SUMMER SESSION PROGRAMS. The summer session's major contribution to teacher education has been two fold: it has (1) provided college courses for general education purposes and courses in the fields of specialization for teachers; and (2) offered graduate degree programs for school personnel preparing for positions of educational leadership.

The predominance of pedagogical courses in summer sessions has been due to a number of factors. Teachers conscientiously have wanted help with their teaching problems. In spite of the fact that summer courses in education are frequently limited to vicarious considerations of the problems, many teachers have received from them the aid they sought. Skilled and experienced professors are able to help teachers become acquainted with ideas and examples of good practice which they could apply when they returned to their classrooms.

Another factor which has increased summer education course enrollments, particularly at the graduate level, has been the reluctance of subject-matter departments to meet the professional needs of teachers. Standstill programs of graduate study in subject fields at the master's degree level aim at laying the foundation for research and intensive specialization leading to the doctorate. Standards of selection and attainment are designed to identify the talented few who will achieve success at advanced levels of study.

Many teachers, because their undergraduate degree programs were devoted to studying several fields rather than to intensive specialization in one, lack the course pre-requisites for admission to graduate work in the subject fields they are teaching. If admitted, they often find the competition with younger graduate students who have had more intensive and

recent undergraduate preparation in the specialized field too rigorous. As a result, teachers turn to departments of education for graduate degree programs and often leave their teaching assignments for administration as a consequence of the conditions that confront them in subject-matter departments of graduate schools.

Recent efforts supported by the National Science Foundation promise to correct this condition. Subject-matter departments have been awarded grants which provide staff salaries and scholarships for participants. Graduate courses in subject fields are designed specifically for teachers. The results prove that teachers desire to take graduate work in subject fields when appropriate courses are offered. Closer association with teachers and their problems is helping college professors of subject fields to understand more clearly the training teachers must have and to feel a responsibility for helping provide it.

A basic factor in the growth of summer session enrollments of teachers, regardless of their field of study, has been the practice of public school systems of giving salary increases for the completion of formal courses or degrees. The requirements by some states that teachers complete a prescribed number of courses, within a given period of years, to maintain the validity of their teaching certificates has increased summer session enrollments as well.¹¹ These practices, although intended to improve the professional competence of teachers, all too frequently have encouraged reluctant teachers to enroll in graduate courses, for the quick attainment of easy credits and degrees, rather than the improvement of professional skill.

EXTENSION COURSES. Extension and correspondence courses have also made major contributions to the continu-

¹¹ "Appraisal and Promotion Procedures in Urban School Districts, 1955-56," Circular No. 8 (Washington, D. C.: Educational Research Service, 1956), p. 56.

"State Minimum Salary Laws and Goal Schedules for Teachers, 1956-57," Special Memo (Washington, D. C.: Research Division of the N.E.A., November, 1956), p. 38.

ing professional study and development of teachers. Originally, such courses served teachers exclusively at the undergraduate level. This is still true of correspondence courses. In recent years many major institutions, such as the universities of Wisconsin, Colorado, Michigan, Illinois, Virginia, and California, have offered extension courses at the graduate level. Teachers are permitted to include a limited number of such courses in graduate degree programs of the institutions offering them.

Extension courses for teachers are subject to some of the same weaknesses as are summer session programs. Subject-matter departments have been reluctant, in most institutions, to provide suitable courses for teachers; consequently, teachers have been forced to enroll in the courses offered by departments of education.

However, one strength extension courses have is the availability of laboratories in which teachers can test theory and pursue research interests. Most extension courses are carried on during the winter months. This makes it possible for professional courses work to be closely related to the problems teachers face in their schools.¹² Perhaps the outstanding example of extension courses which emphasized laboratory research is the extensive child-study extension program developed by the University of Maryland under the direction of Daniel Prescott and his colleagues.¹³ This program helps teachers improve their knowledge of child development through the study of the children as they teach. University professors help in the organization of the study, the comparison of results with established principles, and the analysis of data.

SHORT COURSES AND INSTITUTES. Most institutions for teacher education sponsor various types of short courses (with or without college credit), institutes, in-service study groups, and provide consultation services to help teachers

¹² L. J. Stiles, "Graduate Extension Teaching," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 59 (November, 1953), pp. 422-28.

¹³ Daniel A. Prescott et al., *The Child in the Educative Process* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1957), pp. 415-52.

keep abreast of new knowledge and educational developments.

Short courses are usually focused upon the intensive study of a segment of a pedagogical or subject field, namely, curriculum, human development, audio-visual aids, children's literature, family finance education, economics, or art. They often concentrate on a skill-field such as reading, arithmetic, or speech correction. Testimony of teachers and school administrators supports the value of this type of course as an aid to continuing professional development.

Institutes range in length from one day to a week and are usually designed to appeal to a particular professional group, such as school administrators or teachers of business education, or to a cross-section of professional people who are interested in a field such as guidance or the gifted child.

Most institutions make consultation services of staff members available to teachers and school systems as much as their resources permit. Some free professors on a part-time basis to permit them to visit teachers to provide help with teaching problems in their subject fields. A few institutions have attempted assigning professors the responsibility of consulting with graduates who are first-year teachers. The objectives are dual: to help the beginning teacher make the initial adjustment to teaching; and to learn from graduates their reactions to the institution's program of preparation for teaching.

Institutions which maintain demonstration schools typically follow the practice of inviting teachers to visit the school for short periods to observe the instruction and consult with members of the staff.

BASIC EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH. The most neglected function of institutions for teacher education is basic educational research. Not only have universities failed generally to support on-campus basic research to improve education on a level comparable to aid given in other fields, but they also have not provided needed assistance to teachers in local schools who are interested in research.

The fault does not lie entirely with the administrative policies of universities. Professors in subject fields have not been interested in educational research and professors of education too frequently were either poorly prepared for research or so over-burdened with teaching assignments that research was almost impossible. Swamped with rapidly increasing enrollments in required education courses, professors of education have been kept so busy passing on educational theories and accumulated experiences that they have had little time or energy to put either theory or experience to rigorous experimental verification.

It is generally recognized, nevertheless, that institutions that prepare teachers should conduct basic research that cannot be done by teachers in school systems. They have the responsibility, also, of training school personnel at the graduate level for research. Finally, further obligation is to help identify and refine basic problems for study.

PROGRAMS OF STATE DEPARTMENTS OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION

Legal responsibility for the quality of teachers prepared for schools rests with state departments of public instruction.¹⁴ By assuming leadership for certification and upgrading the standards maintained for public schools, their influence is exerted directly upon programs of continuing professional development in schools and colleges.

State departments influence the in-service development of teachers by providing supervisors assigned to encourage school systems to assist teachers improve their competence. State departments may, apart from, or in cooperation with, institutions for teacher education, sponsor conferences, encourage research, and disseminate the results of research as a direct means of fostering the continuing professional development of school personnel.

¹⁴ Fred F. Beach and Robert F. Will, *State and Education: The Structure and Control of Public Education*, United States Office of Education, Misc. Publication No. 23, 1955

DEVELOPMENT OF CERTIFICATION STANDARDS. Perhaps the most potent force in support of programs of continuing professional development for teachers has been the standards maintained for certification.¹⁵ Such regulations prescribe the length of the period of college preparation, the emphasis in the program of preparation, the quality of scholarship maintained, and personal fitness for teaching. They bear, also, upon the teachers' efforts to keep abreast professionally. Such requirements not only have encouraged teachers to strive for higher levels of professional preparation; they have also influenced local school systems, colleges, and universities to organize for teachers programs of in-service education.

SUPERVISION AND SPONSORSHIP OF CONFERENCES. Supervision by state departments of public instruction is no longer aimed at merely carrying out the inspection function. In fact, inspection and licensing of schools are not nearly as central a function of state departments as they once were. As state supervisors have been required to devote less time to inspection, they have been able to give more attention to stimulating improvement of schools and teachers. Supervisors of certain special fields such as health and physical education, art, music, home economics, and agriculture have long played important roles in encouraging the professional development of teachers. To a lesser extent supervisors of elementary education have also provided this type of leadership. A trend is developing for state departments of public instruction to employ supervisors for the basic academic subject fields of English, foreign languages, science, and history.

Conferences are regularly sponsored by most state departments of public instruction which consider key educational developments. Although such conferences, as do those sponsored by colleges, attract school leaders in greater proportion than they do beginning teachers, the representatives of school

¹⁵ L. J. Stiles, "Maintaining High Certification Standards," *Virginia Journal of Education*, 50 (April, 1957), p. 16

systems who attend carry their benefits home to their colleagues. To the extent that they encourage more creative and inspiring leadership for schools such meetings directly help to create a climate in which maximum growth for teachers will take place.

TYPES OF ACTIVITIES

Programs of continuing professional development, whether they rely solely upon the resources of the local school system or draw upon the contributions of institutions of higher learning or state departments of public instruction, tend to promote certain characteristic types of activities. The choice of activity is not particularly important in itself. In fact, danger lies in placing stress upon the activity rather than upon the results obtained.

ORGANIZED GROUP STUDY. This type of in-service activity is perhaps the most popular type of activity found in programs designed to promote continuing professional growth. Teachers enjoy exchanging ideas. Group work helps them to identify themselves with others who face similar problems and are as ambitious to improve. Group study permits economy in time of supervisors and other resource people. Whether or not it is a means to college credit for the teacher, it has the potential of motivating effort and maintaining interest of participants.

To be of maximum effectiveness, group study should be directed toward objectives which are recognized as important by those engaged. If teachers share in the formulation of objectives, planning of study activities, and in evaluating progress, they gain more. Some of the effect of group study for teachers is lost when all the planning is done by either the supervisor or an outside resource person.

Group study by teachers is probably more effective when purposes and interests, as well as professional maturity and competence, can be utilized as criteria for forming groups. Experienced teachers may well be bored by the problems that challenge beginning teachers. Likewise, the apprentice may be discouraged and confused by the professional

concerns of his elders. Teachers in various subject fields can find common interest in the study of child development, learning, discipline, evaluation, and guidance. They may not be as eager to work together on curriculum problems dealing with areas of the school program in which some feel less informed than others.

CURRICULUM IMPROVEMENT. Involving apprentice teachers in efforts to improve school curriculums has been found to be an effective technique for promoting their professional maturation. Whether they work on courses of study for the subject field in which they teach or on the design of the total offerings of the school, they gain basic insight into the nature, functions, and program of education. It is through this type of endeavor that teachers find the greatest motivation for professional improvement; they see in it a chance to influence directly, and for a period of years, the impact of education on students.

Participation in curriculum study brings teachers into association with colleagues from other subject fields, a type of opportunity that may have been neglected in their pre-service preparation for teaching. Such association helps them to understand the contributions that various subjects make to the development of students. Often, this work leads teachers to identify ways in which joint efforts between subject fields can be carried out to the students' advantage. It serves also to promote in the teacher a feeling of relationship to the total educational enterprise.

One of the most fruitful types of participation in the field of curriculum development is in the construction of resource units for use by all teachers of a subject or grade.¹⁶ Teachers who work individually or with committees of colleagues to produce resource units expand their understanding of the objectives of the course, the content to be taught, the resources available, and the variety of approaches possible for teaching. This type of activity by beginning teach-

¹⁶Robert S. Harnack, *The Role of the Resource Unit in Curriculum Planning* (Ph.D. Thesis, University of Wisconsin, 1951).

dent initiative and responsibility.¹⁹ The basic philosophy underlying such a method holds that when changed behavior is a goal of teaching, the approach employed to promote learning can be a determinant of the results attained.

At its best, the workshop offers a high-level intellectual experience for teachers; at its worst, it sometimes becomes little more than an exchange of ignorance. Early workshops were successful because they had the benefit of directors who were skilled in guiding teacher-student cooperation. The teacher-participants were often selected from the outstanding teachers of experimental school systems. Groups undertook the achievements of specific objectives, the development of resource units, for example. Outcomes of these courses were important to many professional people. Participation in such projects brought prestige to the teacher. Scholarships were often provided. At times teachers were paid by their school system to attend. As a result of favorable responses from teachers, workshops soon became popular in local school systems and in summer sessions.

As is often the case, the workshop approach to in-service education fell victim, in many school systems, to incompetent leadership, inadequate planning, too short sessions, teachers who were looking for easy credit, and of *laissez-faire* concepts of group operation.

The term "workshop" now has come to be used to identify anything from a one-day meeting to a full eight-week summer course. College credit for workshops may represent the completion of a research project comparable in scope and quality to a master's thesis, and worthy of publication, or it may only signify attendance, an exchange of opinions and experiences without worthwhile scholarship. Failure to maintain uniform and high standards in workshops for college credit has raised questions about its inclusion in degree programs for teachers. Over-emphasis of this

¹⁹ Gordon N. Boardman, *The Contribution of Summer Workshops to the In-Service Education of Teachers* (Ph. D. Thesis, University of Wisconsin, 1917).

single approach to in-service education and dissipation of its basic strengths have weakened its usefulness.

INDIVIDUAL PROFESSIONAL STUDY. The oldest, and perhaps most effective, approach to in-service education is individual professional study. It is also the most ignored by school systems and other agencies which contribute to the continuing professional development of teachers. Teachers can obtain advances on the salary schedule, certificate renewal, and promotions, by completing college courses for credit or degrees; rarely do such rewards come for individual study.

Opposition of the organized teaching profession to relating salary policy to competence in teaching persuades the majority of school systems to reward teachers for length of service and amount of formal study as measured by credit hours and degrees. These schemes provide little opportunity to reward individual professional study even though it may contribute more to strengthening the quality of teaching. Under such pressures individual study by teachers apart from formal course work is discouraged. The consequences are obvious. Instead of developing mature professional teachers capable of self-directed, individual study, policies of school systems often encourage staff members to work only for college credit and degrees. Instead of providing teachers with a climate of professional freedom, requirements are imposed for particular types of in-service study. Instead of building an atmosphere of respect for the teacher as a professional person, people are led to think of him as a tradesman who must be compelled to improve his skill in his trade and made to conform to the commonly endorsed work level of his union.

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Part V

PROBLEMS AND PROSPECTS IN TEACHER EDUCATION

CHAPTER 17

Evaluation

Evaluation is a process of assigning values to data which have been assembled through various measurement procedures. These two operations, measurement followed by evaluation, are essential in assessing programs of teacher education. This chapter deals with both the data-gathering activities as well as the factors involved in the assigning of values to plans, operations, conditions, and outcomes.

USE OF GENERAL IMPRESSIONS, ESTIMATES, GUESSES

The evaluation of teacher education is plagued with the tendency of faculty and administrators to rely upon impressions, estimates, and guesses in assessing program strengths. Such subjective approaches persist in spite of the emphasis that has been given to the scientific study and appraisal of education.

It is generally recognized that the data upon which evaluations are made must be valid, reliable, and complete. Criteria against which data are appraised must be carefully defined. Thus, evaluation of programs of teacher education requires systematic plans to insure the collection of adequate and reliable data and the definition of reference points that command respect. It must be remembered that the value placed on a program, or aspect of teacher education, must be acceptable to many individuals, including non-professionals as well as specialists in the field.

Some persons, unfortunately, contend that evaluation of teacher education is impossible. Admittedly, the assignment of value to programs and procedures for preparing teachers is extremely difficult. This circumstance is not, however, an acceptable reason for failing to evaluate. In fact, the more complex a process is, the more important that its worth be judged. This principle applies particularly to teacher education, since the outcomes are so vital to both the individual and society as a whole. It is unnecessary to point out that even those who contend that teacher education processes and products cannot be appraised, do evaluate nevertheless. But they do so by unconscious procedures and standards they endorse, involving guesses, estimates, and impressions based on individualistic systems of values.

An essential aspect of each program for the preparation of teachers is the attention given to evaluation. Ordinarily, evaluative processes can be improved if the total program can be broken down into parts to permit each to be judged systematically. When aspects of the program are known, defined, described, counted, or measured, and their relation to larger units ascertained, data can be assembled which makes evaluation possible. This premise holds true whether the focus is on curriculum, facilities, or the instructional staff.

WHAT MAY BE EVALUATED. Plans, procedures, facilities, staff, and graduates of programs of teacher education may all be evaluated—individually and collectively. Each aspect contributes to the composite effect of the effort; each may have its own strengths and weaknesses. In a final sense, the quality of the teacher education program is determined by the professional competence of its graduates. One important way, therefore, to evaluate an institution's preparation of teachers is to appraise the changes that take place in the individuals who are served by it.

Another approach to the evaluation of programs of teacher education is to study its operation, including its associated purposes, personnel, and the conditions it main-

tains to accomplish its mission. Programs must be studied carefully under the actual conditions that prevail in order to evaluate teaching personnel accurately. Any and all aspects of the program may be thus evaluated: the facilities, the personnel, the organization, the curriculum, instructional procedures, and any attending circumstances.

A third type of evaluation pertains to plans. Verbal statements about what one purports to do may be subjected to different sorts of analysis and evaluation. All of these involve criteria in one form or another. These are stated variously, sometimes as principles of action, sometimes as standards, and sometimes as values to be achieved. Whatever their nature, they will need careful validation.

STANDARDS FOR THE EVALUATION OF TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS. The National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education has developed standards and guides for accreditation of teacher education. The standards are stated in general terms. They indicate the functions that institutions should be performing in seven broad areas. The guides indicate the aspects of the program that should be studied by the evaluation team. The aspects of the teacher education program to be evaluated are as follows:

1. *The objectives of the teacher education program.* These should (a) indicate the school positions for which persons are prepared; (b) make clear the assumptions, beliefs, and values that the program is meant to exemplify; and (c) indicate the institution's goals for improving education through research, service, and experimentation.
2. *The organization and administration of teacher education.* The organization among other things should (a) be such as to assure consistent policies and practices; (b) be such as to facilitate the continuous development and improvement of the teacher education program; and (c) clearly fix responsibilities for the administration of the policies agreed upon.
3. *Student personnel programs and services.* The program should include: (a) information about teaching; (b) admission to and retention in the Teacher Education

- curricula; (c) advising and registration; (d) personnel records and placement.
4. *The faculty for teacher education.* This standard includes (a) qualifications; and (b) the number and teaching load of the faculty.
 5. *The curricula for teacher education.* The common and differentiated aspects of all curricula should be in harmony with the stated objectives of teacher education of the institution; the curricula are to be evaluated in terms of nine state criteria.
 6. *Professional laboratory experiences.* The standard provides (a) definitions of the various terms employed; (b) the nature and scope of laboratory experiences; and (c) arrangements for the program.
 7. *Facilities and materials.* This standard relates to (a) building facilities and equipment; and (b) materials of instruction.

Standards and guides such as here described provide one approach to the appraisal of teacher education programs. The evaluation is made by teams of evaluators working with data supplied by the institution about the various aspects of the program. Other means of evaluation will be described in the pages to follow.

OPERATIONAL SURVEYS

Almost any aspect of the program may be surveyed, either partially or as an aspect of a comprehensive teacher education study. Surveys may be intermittent or continuous. Many teacher education institutions have regular survey departments. They are variously named and may be combined with other functions, such as research and reference. They may use specially-trained staff members both from within and without the institution on specially designed projects and/or on the evaluation which may be an integral part of the operations.

Many institutions today are making evaluation an important aspect of their programs. The kinds of data-gathering devices employed are as varied as the operations

themselves. They may include observation, interviews, questionnaires, tests and measurements, and documentary sources. Every operation assumes an integral relationship among different parts, and each element makes a definable contribution to the over-all product.

One of the important considerations that those who engage in surveys should keep in mind is the context from which the data are secured. Data out of context, interesting though they may be, may not be particularly useful. Sometimes they may be quite misleading. Behavior, that is, the acts of students, faculty, administrators, and others, are not good or bad in general; they must be considered with reference to stated purposes and to particular relationships with people and a specified set of conditions. Much of the nonsense written about the professional education of teachers arises out of unverified generalizations: for example, specific courses should be required of all; professors should never lecture; direct contact learning is more effective than verbal learning; professional subject-matter courses lack content; academic subject-matter courses are abstract and unrelated to the professional needs of teachers; married women teachers have less professional interest in teaching than married male teachers, and so on, *ad infinitum*.

COLLECTING USEFUL DATA. The materials, conditions, and processes of teacher education must always be considered in relation to goals and results. All too frequently a vital relationship is assumed but not factually established. A refinement and tightening of the logic of operational surveys should be achieved with great benefit to all concerned. By custom, tradition, and personal experience certain materials, conditions, and processes are associated with the varied processes of teacher education. To assume that they are necessary and essential without knowing validly that such is the case may leave us with a continuing waste of time, money, and energy. Although evolution is the *sine qua non* of any successful teacher evaluation program, it must be carefully and exactly performed with all considera-

tions in order to accomplish its valuable objective. Some of the more important considerations of collecting useful data follow:

1. Precisely what is to be evaluated? To name it is not enough. The aspect to be studied may be a material object, a human element, an operation, or a condition. But, precisely what is it? Can a learning aid, an attitude, or a method of doing something be sufficiently described to give it the universal meaning that will be understood by all evaluators?
2. What functional relationship is assumed to exist between that which is under evaluation and the goal or product sought? What is the evidence in support of the assumed relationship? Will this relationship be further tested as a part of the survey to be undertaken? There is also always some assumed relationship between parts and wholes.
3. Is the aspect under consideration the only one of its kind that meets the demands of the situation, or are there alternatives with varying degrees of appropriateness? What is the best solution when time, money and energy are taken into consideration? A number of alternatives usually exist for a given situation.
4. To what values is emphasis given in the evaluation? Monetary values, quality values, esthetic values, moral values, intellectual values, or values of some other type may be involved. Operational surveys usually assume some particular set of values. Are the values assumed the ones that should be endorsed?
5. Are the aspects of the phenomenon under consideration the ones that are ordinarily considered important? The matter under investigation may be immaterial or of only secondary consequence.
6. Are the data-gathering devices valid and reliable, and have they been properly applied? Data are no better than the devices employed in their collection. It is assumed that the collection of data is systematic and unbiased.
7. How are the data recorded? This may have considerable effect upon the final result. If they are counted, are they actually countable, are the items equal, and are they the same or equivalent in some vital respect under considera-

tion? If they are, does one need only to record the frequency? Sometimes order, duration, and impact may be important. Will the record show this?

8. How are the data analyzed? Are they summed, correlated, or partitioned in some vital respect? Is the context in which the data were secured important? Sometimes equal units have different importance according to the situation. Has the analysis taken this fact into account?
9. Finally, are the generalizations in keeping with the data? Are limitations placed upon generalizations?

VERSATILITY OF OPERATIONAL SURVEYS. Many aspects of the program of teacher education may be studied by means of the operational survey: (1) material objects (buildings and grounds, supplies, equipment, textbooks, and the like); (2) personnel (teachers, students, administrators, supervisors, critics, and various sorts of specialists and service personnel); (3) processes (learning processes, teaching processes, administrative processes, supervisory processes, curriculum building processes, diagnostic processes, and the like); (4) conditions (physical conditions, social conditions, psychological conditions, temporal conditions, and the like). The items enumerated here are of course merely illustrative. The literature is rich in illustrative studies of various kinds. If one assumes, as we do here, that no plan or operation is complete without some plan or means of evaluation, then all operations should contain some sort of evaluation. There was a time in which all important mathematical calculations were accompanied by some sort of check for accuracy; educational operations also need checks for appropriateness, adequacy, and effectiveness.

KINDS OF DATA COLLECTED IN OPERATIONAL SURVEYS. Just as many different types of studies may be considered in operational surveys, so may these studies be examined from many points of view. The term "operation" implies that the aspect of the program under consideration will be seen in action, but frequently such is not the case. In general, five steps are commonly involved in an operational survey: (1) review of the literature to ascertain what other persons

have observed, concluded, or discovered about similar situations; (2) survey of the opinions, conclusions and feelings of nonparticipants in the operation under study; (3) surveys of the attitudes and opinions of those who have participated in the operation under investigation; (4) direct, on-the-spot study of the materials, processes, or persons used in the operation; and (5) measurement and appraisal in some fashion that appears to be reasonable, valid, and reliable of the outcomes, products, or results of the operation under investigation.

SEARCHING THE LITERATURE FOR USEFUL INFORMATION. It is assumed that an operational survey is preceded by a carefully defined statement of purpose and that the conditions of the survey are known and definable in such a manner that the search of the literature will not be aimless. It is also assumed that the searcher is trained in library techniques or can obtain the services of some person who is.

In searching the literature it is not easy to determine what is pertinent and what is not. Yet anything about which records have been preserved will have some pertinency because all knowledge is interrelated. Persons differ greatly in their ability to observe the relationships among things and the importance which they attach to them. Some persons are more concerned with the immediately observable facts and others are interested in the essentials and the fundamental determiners of the worth and value of things. The search of the literature will be greatly influenced by ideas of what is pertinent and what is not.

The technical job of relating the experiences of others that are found in the literature to operations under current investigation is a most difficult task. First, there are reports in the literature of plans and other completed surveys, each of which will likely be different from all others and all unlike the survey in progress. Each survey differs somewhat from others in purpose, design, context, subjects studied, methods of collecting and analysing data, and in the types of conclusions drawn. One learns from such reports, how-

ever, much about how surveys in general are set up, the logic behind them, the manner of handling data, and the sorts of conclusions that one may draw. Sometimes the situations are so similar that information obtained about one survey is of great assistance; nevertheless, information from the literature cannot reveal the adequacy or efficiency of a particular program.

USE OF QUESTIONNAIRES IN OPERATIONAL SURVEYS. It may be observed that educators appear to turn almost invariably to the use of questionnaires when they want to study something. Some people use them as substitutes for thinking, some as substitutes for reading, and some as substitutes for observation. A well-designed questionnaire can be very helpful, nevertheless, when directed to those who have had experience similar to that under study.

Unfortunately some questionnaires ask many things about which the respondent has had little direct experience; the results, therefore, can be little more than a superficial survey of opinion. When questionnaires are carefully constructed and sent to carefully selected respondents, and when they include option clauses for those who cannot answer particular questions, they may provide very helpful and accurate information.

DIRECT OBSERVATION OF OPERATIONS. The "look and see" procedure of studying operations can be useful if properly employed. This method is applicable to the simplest situations as well as to the most complex teacher education program. In making observational studies, reliance may be on ordinary senses only, or one may verify his impressions by all sorts of mechanical counting, measuring, or recording devices. Observation may take place under actual normal conditions, or it may be directed toward experimental operations. Trained observers are careful to make distinctions between what is observed and what is inferred. Complex types of surveys provide directions to guide observation as well as criteria to help judge whether what is observed is adequate or not.

USE OF OPINION SURVEYS. The opinion survey is an almost indispensable part of the operational survey. These opinionnaires may be directed to participants in the operation under investigation or to participants in other similar operations. Two common questions used are "How do you like it?" and "Do you think it works, or works effectively?" These questions may be stated in many different ways and sometimes in great detail, as dictated by the demands of a situation. Sometimes respondents are trained observers, and sometimes they are not. Sometimes they are free and flexible in their thinking and open-minded; sometimes they are lost in custom and tradition and irritated by change. Sometimes they want to respond, and sometimes they do not: they are too busy, uninterested, antagonistic, or they just do not want to be involved. Those that do respond may be too polite or too concerned about what is wanted to give honest responses. However, under favorable conditions valuable information can be had through the use of opinionnaires.

DATA COLLECTING

There are two phases to the consideration of the data collected. One pertains to the manner in which the state of things is ascertained, and the other relates to the manner of assigning values. At this point our concern is with data-gathering devices and procedures for collecting information. Later attention will be given to value-assigning processes.

The chief outcome of a teacher education institution is the teachers who are prepared to practice. The examination of this factor can take place at different points in the training sequence and in different ways. We have already discussed selection and admission policies. Presumably, these relate to the characteristics desired in the teacher, and it is assumed that teacher education institutions have a clear conception of the successful teacher. Accordingly, examination of the product can be made at any desirable point: performance in courses, in general, and in specific aspects of the program; for example, in areas of specialization, in

liberal arts foundations, and in professional areas. Tests are available to measure any and all of the basic constituents of teacher efficiency: skill in oral and written expression; effectiveness in social relations; how to study operations; knowledge of child development, of learning process, of the subject matter in areas of specialization; feelings, opinions, and attitudes toward any and all aspects of the school program; and in a variety of other areas of which the foregoing may serve as examples.

Performance of the prospective teacher can also be studied in actual teaching situations. Most teacher education institutions provide internships or student teaching in one form or another. Finally, one can make systematic follow-up studies of graduates to see how they perform in their first teaching assignments or in subsequent ones. Thus, the teacher educator has a variety of ways in which he may examine the product to ascertain its adequacy. This operation deserves more attention and more systematic study than it ordinarily gets in most teacher training institutions.

ACHIEVEMENT TESTING IN TEACHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS. Achievement testing is one widely employed device for measuring amount of student academic progress. While the number of tests at the college level available is not as large as at the elementary- and secondary-school levels, several good test batteries are in use. In addition, considerable technical information is available for better classroom testing at the college level.

The evaluation of teacher education programs should not be conceived as solely an administrative function; it can also be thought of as an aspect of good teaching. Testing as a part of teaching will not be done by an outside agency or done sporadically; it will be done continuously as a part of the teaching itself.

The evaluative efforts of teachers are not very convincing. There may be considerable difference of opinion about the teacher educator's responsibility in this respect; however, it does seem fairly well accepted in psychological circles that knowledge of learning outcomes on the part of the

learner is an important condition for economy in learning. As the latter is a central responsibility of teacher education institutions, it seems clear that evaluation should be continuous.

We have emphasized the teacher's part in the evaluative efforts of teacher education institutions. An important new development on the administrative side is that of using standardized achievement tests to certify teachers in lieu of certification by course credit. Then, also, students, with the help of teachers, are incorporating measuring and evaluatory processes into learning operations. The purpose here is not to discuss achievement testing as a technical development in the field of professional education, but rather it is to indicate the place of this type of measurement as part of a broader program of teacher education evaluation.

PERFORMANCE IN STUDENT TEACHING AS AN INDICATION OF FUTURE PERFORMANCE. Another type of evaluation which takes place in teacher education institutions is the evaluation of student teaching. While the situations in which the student teaching takes place or the arrangements for it may be highly artificial, and the evaluative criteria used inadequate, student teaching still offers one of the first good opportunities to see the prospective teacher in action. More attention, therefore, needs to be given to the evaluative aspects of this operation.

Due to the artificiality of the teaching situations that may exist (however good these situations may be), because of the unrealistic hopes of teacher-training faculties with reference to beginning teachers, in the light of the individualistic nature of the criteria frequently employed in evaluating student teaching, the correlation between student teacher evaluations and on the job success may be very low. This should provide the teacher educator with a strong stimulus to improve teacher education programs. The measured progress of pupils taught by student teachers, surveys of pupil likes and dislikes of teaching characteristics, and faculty evaluations should provide valuable information

about the effectiveness of the program of teacher education. A large body of technical literature has been published about the evaluation of teacher effectiveness; the teacher educator should be familiar with it.

THE METHODOLOGY OF EDUCATIONAL SURVEYS. This discussion has not attempted to treat the many phases and requirements of scientific research. It has aimed instead to indicate in broad terms what responsibility persons might have to evaluate teacher education programs and to indicate some of the problems associated with such operations. A conscious effort is made here to avoid getting lost in the details of the evaluative process. We are concerned in this overview with the more general aspects of the survey as an instrument of evaluation. There are already available excellent discussions of technical aspects of surveys. These deserve careful examination if one is to comprehend adequately the field of operational surveys.

FOLLOW-UP STUDIES OF TEACHER EFFECTIVENESS. Since the purpose of teacher education programs is to prepare better teachers, it follows that teacher educators should keep their eyes on this goal. Far too many accept their programs on faith without appraising their impact on the teachers prepared. The psychology of this is not too difficult to understand, and individual convictions may be deep-seated, but merely thinking and wishing for something will not make it so.

It is almost impossible to unravel the skein of personal and professional considerations, conscious and subconscious, that constitute the foundations of human beliefs in the programs of teacher education. These beliefs are, however, convictions that need systematic study. It is sometimes said that variety is the spice of life, and without doubt it has its advantages. There are many persons engaged in preparing teachers with a variety of backgrounds and with a wide range of ideas about teacher education. Doubtless some of these backgrounds and ideas are better for teacher education than others. It is always possible that one's ideas are

wrong or not acceptable to other persons, or too costly or time consuming, or inappropriate to the particular situation; it is necessary that the facts in the case be ascertained.

One of the best ways to evaluate the teacher education program is to follow the prospective teacher into service and to see how he performs. Among the questions for which answers should be sought are the following: How many of the teachers trained to teach actually do so? Into which sorts of positions do graduates go? What are the interest, training and capacity demands of these positions? Are the positions assumed the ones for which the teachers were prepared? If so, was the preparation provided adequate? If inadequate, in which respects might the preparation have been improved? How effective is the teacher as a director of learning, a counselor of pupils, a member of the school community, a member of a professional group? What are the teacher's strengths and weaknesses? How may the teacher education program be modified to improve the final result, the teacher?

SURVEYS OF ADMINISTRATIVE OPINION. Teacher educators sometimes forget that employing officials have preferences about the education of teachers. Administrators and supervisors have the best opportunities to judge the strength and weaknesses of the educational product of teacher education institutions. Many institutions regularly send follow-up questionnaires to administrators to obtain information about their graduates, their effectiveness, and how their programs may be improved. Others hold annual discussions with representatives of employing school systems to consider strengths and weaknesses of their teacher education programs.

A good follow-up instrument includes questions pertaining to (1) *information about fundamental attitudes, knowledge, and skills:* interest in teaching, interest in the subject taught, and interest in school children; (2) *knowledge of the subject taught;* (3) *knowledge of the aims and purposes of schools;* (4) *understanding of children;* (5) *understanding of the learning process and the conditions for effective*

learning; general cultural background; (6) personal fitness of teachers: personal magnetism, considerateness, cooperativeness, drive, emotional stability, judgment, gentility, objectivity; (7) skill in the communicative arts; (8) skill in problem-solving, and (9) skill in human relations.

SURVEYS OF STUDENT OPINIONS. Some institutions have developed systematic and continuous surveys of student opinion on various aspects of their teacher education programs. Generally, student surveys have been concerned with an evaluation of the course work. Such surveys, when properly managed, can be helpful, particularly when coupled with other pertinent information about the prospective teacher.

In the use of student opinion, however, three things should be kept in mind:

1. The instrument used in collecting data needs to be carefully constructed and validated, just as any other data gathering instrument. As now constructed and employed, most of them are very inadequate and unreliable, and they may give an unfair, or, to say the least, an inadequate picture of the teacher. The same rigorous methods of choosing, constructing, and validating which are employed with reference to other data-gathering devices need to be employed in constructing opinionnaires.
2. The instruments need to be developed with faculty co-operation and acceptance, and they need to be administered, if they are not to make definite inroads into faculty morale, in a manner that may lead to valid and reliable information. How they are administered, who scores them, and who has access to them are important matters that need careful consideration.
3. The availability of student opinion, as contrasted with other types of information about teacher effectiveness, may become a source of weakness. At best, and when properly employed, surveys of student opinion merely supplement other more important data.

Followup surveys of student opinion are particularly helpful when used after the student has gained teaching experience. Surveys at this time bring maturity to the evaluation as well as firsthand knowledge of the demands of actual

teaching situations. Judgments obtained are particularly pertinent and valuable in dealing with the teacher education curriculum. Some teachers will, by temperament and training, be much more objective than others; some will reflect basic preconceptions, and some will project degrees of comparability. Again, when employed with care and judgment, much valuable information may be secured about the graduate and the teacher education program.

ASSIGNING VALUES

In the preceding discussion our concern has been focused on the normative survey type of data. Evaluation as seen through data of this type is a two-step operation. First, data must be collected, and second, values must be assigned to these data. In some of the operations described, the two processes are closely tied together, but it is still possible to think of them as separate procedures. Both are complex activities. Let us now consider the second process—that of assigning values.

The assigning of value to data is complex and intricate. In broad outline this may be done by relating data to (1) stated criteria; (2) stated norms; and (3) the goals and products of teacher education. Reference has already been made to the use of criteria. Attention will be given in this section, therefore, to the problems of using norms and goals in evaluation.

THE CONSTRUCTION AND USE OF NORMS. Some people would dispense with the use of any norms at all. This attitude arises from the fact that norms are frequently poorly constructed. They may be due to the poorly defined concepts for which the norms have been developed; for example, norms relative to the certification of teachers, norms relating to teacher's salaries, and norms relating to professional training of teachers. They may also be based upon carelessly collected information or upon inadequate data-gathering devices. Frequently the populations upon which norms are based are poorly defined. In the areas of teacher salaries and certification and professional training referred to above,

first of all, one must define the term "teacher." There are many kinds of teachers. To be of maximum benefit and value various categories of teachers, therefore, must be defined and established. Finally, norms must be based upon adequate data and carefully defined populations. The above statements pertain to only the most general features of building norms.

Let us suppose, to take another example, that concern exists regarding the library facilities necessary for a first-year graduate seminar in local history. Sometimes norms are set for both space and books. To do so there must be some reference to the aims and purposes of a seminar and the manner in which it is to be conducted. One would expect that courses bearing the same name but having different instructors, particularly when offered in different sorts of institutions, would make different demands on space and equipment. Possibly meaningful categories could be established and norms indicated for each.

To arrive at useful norms, terms must be defined, categories established, and conditions anticipated. To further clarify the matter, let us suppose that behavioral norms are to be set up for students. Only in a very rigid or restricted situation could one imagine behavior norms of any particular value. Achievement norms may be set up if this seems desirable, and this may be done in terms of different factors. Presumably they would be set up for different sorts of persons who are destined for various kinds of jobs in a wide range of types of communities. Without an adequate breakdown and categorization, norms become inadequate and misleading. When properly established, however, norms do provide an important means of assigning values.

RELATING DATA TO THE GOALS AND PRODUCTS OF TEACHER EDUCATION. The ultimate concern of a teacher education institution is with the quality of teacher it produces. Everything else is preparatory and secondary to this outcome. Time and time again one finds means treated as ends. Sometimes processes are valuable in and of themselves, but more often they are merely relics of past programs that clutter up

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the educational adventure. Indispensable as particular procedures may seem to be, they are not something to be maintained at all cost.

No operational survey is complete until the various means are considered in relation to the product. It is important to be able to identify the various components of teacher education and assess their adequacy as self-contained units in and of themselves, but it is crucial also to see each unit in relation to the purposes and products of the total program. There are many temporary evaluations that one may make in terms of norms and criteria, and these are important, but there are no substitutes for studies of the quality of teachers produced.

EXPERIMENTAL STUDIES OF TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS. In the immediately preceding section the use of the normative survey was discussed. There are, however, other means of evaluating teacher education programs. One of the more substantial and reliable of these, under favorable conditions, is the experimental study. This approach is usually thought of as a phase of research, which, of course, it is; but it can also be used as a means of evaluating action programs and almost any and all aspects of teacher education. Almost anything can be tried out under experimental conditions.

A very fruitful area of continuous study and evaluation is the program itself. Many teachers make this kind of appraisal a continuous part of their semester-to-semester activities. One may study such matters as class size, methods of teaching, direct-contact learning, television instruction, concept building, the acquisition of language arts skills, the use of various learning aids, interpersonal relationships, mental health, personality development, and maladjustments of various sorts. These are only a few of the various aspects of teacher education which adapt themselves well to the experimental approach. While such studies may be made within a particular course, activity, or institution, other institutions, courses, and programs may be involved as well. The large class with more than one section and instructor

offers a particularly interesting opportunity to appraise certain portions of the teacher education program. The things that one needs to keep in mind in experimental appraisal have been set forth in great detail in the literature and need not be discussed here.

PREDICTIVE STUDIES. Another approach to the appraisal of teacher education programs may be made through predictive studies. Every time the teacher educator sets forth plans, suggests curricula, or employs preferred teaching procedures, he also makes a prediction. He postulates that the suggested or pursued course of action will produce better teachers. While no prediction technique is perfect, there are many things that one can do with regression equations whether taken singly or in combinations. The predictors to be utilized can cover any aspects of the teacher education program. Success in these will be compared with success on the job as evaluated in terms of suitable criteria. One may also predict supervisory ratings, life expectancy, pupil growth and achievement or almost anything about which one is accustomed to make predictions. When this type of operation is properly performed it will give more reliable results than the estimates, guesses, and approximations traditionally employed. But our interest here is not in the predictions *per se*, but instead in the ingredients of the predictive equation and the information that it may give about the teacher education program. A favorite course—pattern of education—for example, may turn out to have little bearing upon the student's subsequent success as a teacher. Things can be studied singly or as a pattern of education depending upon one's objective at the time. The regression equation provides a valuable vehicle for making appraisals of teacher education programs.

WHO MAY MAKE EVALUATIONS. Emphasis has been placed in this chapter upon institutional self-appraisal. Besides this continuous activity there may be appraisal by many outside agencies. Reference has already been made to the evaluative criteria of the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education. Local school systems may have coordinated plans

of teacher education with a central office of research and appraisal, as do most state departments of public instruction. Many of these state departments have divisions of teacher education and appraisal. The National Office of Education has a division of teacher education which may provide certain limited services in this respect. Also many universities have divisions of higher education or bureaus of educational research and service. Some philanthropic foundations have evidenced interest in supporting projects to evaluate teacher education. There are therefore many outside agencies as well as internal resources that may be utilized in the appraisal of teacher education programs.

EVALUATION AN IMPORTANT COMPONENT OF TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS

Whether considered from the point of view of the validity provided teacher education programs or in terms of its contribution to personnel, education and development, evaluation is an indispensable part of each and every teacher education program. Professional education and teacher education, in particular, have been subjected to much criticism. Under the circumstances it would seem sensible and desirable that educationalists re-examine many aspects of their programs. It is recognized that by and large teacher education seems to have been effective, but there is much unevenness in its components in most institutions, and the program is woefully weak in some instances. Its aims and purposes, the curriculum, the materials of instruction and learning aids, its methods and approaches to teaching, and standards of accomplishment should all be most critically re-examined. To teacher educators the program may seem adequate, but there should be a challenge to the profession to array the supporting data in such a manner as to be convincing to others. Mere argumentation and verbalization of frequently repeated claims will not be enough. The logic and the data should be in keeping with the best critical thinking.

No field of professional activity offers greater opportunities to engage in scholarly thinking and research in conjunc-

tion with the discharge of day-to-day responsibilities than teacher education. Evaluation is every teacher educator's responsibility, and there is little excuse for not engaging in it, even though tradition runs to the contrary. The teaching profession sorely needs constant study of aims, methods, and processes. No profession offers more intimate opportunities for scholarly thinking and research.

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CHAPTER 18

Accreditation

As is true in other fields, major impetus for improved standards in teacher education comes from members of the profession itself. Efforts to establish nationwide standards and a program of accreditation of institutions for teacher education have stemmed primarily from professional organizations and institutions which prepare teachers. The National Education Association through its Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards and the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education have played significant roles in the creation of the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education. This body is now recognized as the single national agency for the accreditation of teacher education programs in the United States.

The establishment of the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education brings organization and strength to efforts to improve standards for the preparation of teachers on a nationwide basis. It calls attention to the importance of teacher education as a function of institutions of higher learning and underscores the role which accreditation must play if standards for teacher education are to be raised. It also promises to solve the heated and historic controversy over whether teaching is a profession worthy of a program of preparation designed especially to promote the professional competence of prospective members.

OBJECTIVES OF ACCREDITATION

The long struggle to establish a program of accreditation for teacher education has been both aided and retarded by experiences in accreditation of other professional programs. Support was derived from the improvements in standards that other professions, such as medicine, law, engineering, and some of the scientific fields, have been able to achieve through national programs of professional accreditation. At the same time the rigidity of standards, costs, and inconvenience to colleges and universities, as well as competing accrediting responsibilities from different agencies, have generated resistance to efforts to add the accreditation of another professional field to the burdens and limitations of power of college administrative officials and boards of control. Nevertheless, the success of accreditation in improving educational standards in both secondary schools and colleges in the United States has continued to focus attention upon the fundamental objectives which accreditation has sought to achieve.

ESTABLISHMENT OF STANDARDS FOR PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION. The over-all objective of accreditation for teacher education is to establish minimum standards, on a nationwide basis, which must be maintained by institutions preparing teachers. A parallel objective is to encourage institutions which already meet the standards to improve their programs still further to elevate teacher education to new and higher levels. Both aims are reflected in a statement of goals issued by the Commission of Teacher Education and Professional Standards:¹

1. Development, cooperatively, of well-defined standards for teacher education program and effective procedures for the approval of teacher education institutions in all states and territories.

¹ National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, *The Professional Standards Movement in Teaching: Program and Projection* (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1956), p. 20.

2. Accreditation of the general college programs of all institutions of higher learning authorized to prepare teachers, by the appropriate regional accrediting association.
3. Recognition of the accreditation of an institution's teacher education program by the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education as indicative of a program of teacher education of high quality.
4. Development of increased participation of the teaching profession in the process of setting standards and accrediting teacher education programs.

In addition to general accreditation which is carried on by the regional associations, accreditation for teacher education purposes takes into account, also, those features of the program—facilities, financial support, instruction, student services, and research—that relate directly to professional preparation. Such factors as the quality of liberal education and of subject offerings, considered in the general accreditation of institutions of higher learning, are important in judging standards of teacher preparation. In addition, pedagogical aspects of the program of preparation, including provisions for laboratory experiences, are considered.

STANDARD CRITERIA FOR APPRAISING QUALITY. A weakness in programs of teacher education, in all types of institutions during the first half of the twentieth century, has been the lack of standard criteria for appraising the quality of teacher education programs. As a consequence, institutions have employed a variety of approaches to teacher education with no common criteria for determining which programs produced superior teachers.

A goal of accreditation for teacher education is the establishment of valid criteria by which programs of teacher training can be judged. Development of reliable and useful criteria, which are acceptable to members of the profession, to institutions of higher learning, and to officials of state departments of education, requires not only the testing of theory through research but also the achievement of agreement regarding the basic objectives of teacher education. A step in this direction was the proposed statement of policy de-

veloped by the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education in 1957.²

PROVIDING HIGH QUALITY PROGRAMS OF TEACHER EDUCATION FOR ALL PROSPECTIVE TEACHERS. The ultimate goal of accreditation is to make available to all prospective teachers the resources of high quality programs of teacher education, regardless of geographical location or type of institution. Where weak programs are permitted to exist in an institution, or on a state or regional basis, students are the victims of inadequate preparation for teaching. Often they and the public which employs them as teachers are unaware of the deficiencies in their educational preparation until years later. Inasmuch as teachers and students migrate from state to state, the preparation each teacher receives becomes a national as well as local concern.

The effort to promote high-quality programs of teacher education is based primarily upon raising the sights of those responsible for such programs and of the public that employs their products. It may also include the application of legal sanctions to institutions and individuals who fail to meet accepted standards. Accreditation, beyond that required by law in some states, is a voluntary process for all institutions of higher learning. As the profession places its approval upon accreditation of institutions for teacher education, as colleges and universities which maintain high standards join to support the movement, as state departments of public instruction recognize accreditation by regional and national agencies for purposes of certification and reciprocity of certificate exchange, and as employing school systems give priority to graduates of accredited institutions, the advantage of meeting standards for accreditation by institutions for teacher education becomes apparent.

When accreditation standards for teacher preparation have become established, it is anticipated that those institutions which fail to meet them will cease to be recognized as

² W. Earl Armstrong, "The Teacher Education Curriculum," *The Journal of Teacher Education*, 8, No. 3 (September, 1957), pp. 3-16.

"approved" institutions in which to prepare for teaching. Such developments have taken place in other professional fields when accreditation standards have been ignored. Thus, it can be seen that accreditation as a process places pressure upon institutions to achieve the standards that have been set by members of the profession.

PROTECTION FOR THE TEACHING PROFESSION. Accreditation gives teachers a vested interest in the protection of their profession. Institutions which prepare teachers are integrally associated with the quality and maintenance of professional competence. Employing school systems are interested in and affected by the standards maintained among the teaching profession. The choice of teaching by young people is directly influenced by the reputation of the profession. Above all, parents and other laymen who support schools to educate future generations have a basic interest in providing protection for the teaching profession.

Institutions of higher learning. Weak programs of teacher education damage the reputations of all colleges and universities; poor standards of admission and scholastic achievement undermine the quality of education at all levels. Lack of specific standards for accreditation of teacher education permits any institution to engage in the preparation of teachers. Local loyalties and political considerations being as strong as they are, make it almost impossible to control the quality of educational preparation for teaching, or any other profession, except through a nationwide system of voluntary accreditation which gives support to high-quality institutions and calls attention to those which fail to meet this standard.

Employing school systems. With legal requirements for teacher certification based upon college credits and degrees, and with almost any kind of institution able to be recognized within its own state, school systems are at the mercy of a certification system which grants admission to the profession and authorizes an individual to practice regardless of the quality of preparation he has completed. School boards and administrators, particularly in less favored school systems, have at times resisted efforts to improve standards

for the teaching profession because they feared that better educated teachers would be too expensive. Such fears are well founded. Statistics show that states which maintain the highest standards for certification for teaching also pay the best salaries on the average.³ The short-sighted policy of placing cost of teachers ahead of high standards of preparation and competence loses ground as school board members come to see their responsibilities to children more clearly and as school administrators, themselves, achieve higher standards of professional preparation for their assignments.

It is a protection to the employing agency to know whether or not a teacher has met the requirements for certification in an institution which is specifically accredited for teacher education. Such information assures the employer that the prospective teacher has met the intellectual and personal standards for admission to a program of teacher education, and that he has completed a strong and balanced program in areas of liberal education, subject-matter fields and pedagogical preparation.

Prospective teachers. The invitation to enter the teaching profession that has been extended to the young people of the United States has been seriously weakened by the absence of uniformly high standards for programs of teacher education. This fault has been one major cause for the lack of respect that has prevailed toward elementary and secondary-school teaching in recent years. Under conditions where institutions for teacher education accept almost any high-school graduate as a prospective teacher, where programs of preparation are weak or poorly balanced, and where standards of achievement are low, able young people hesitate to prepare for teaching. Even institutions whose standards are high find students avoiding preparation for teaching because of its nationwide reputation as a low-standard profession.

As is true in other fields, outstanding young people are reluctant to plan careers in professional fields that fail to

³ "Salary Roundup," Research Division, National Education Association, N.E.A. Research Bulletin, 36, No. 1 (February, 1938), pp. 5-8.

protect the able from the incompetent. When teachers with one or two years of post-high-school instruction, received perhaps in weak institutions, can compete with the elementary-school teachers having four years of preparation in first-rate universities, it is to be expected that students with the best potentialities for teaching may be reluctant to choose to teach. Programs of accreditation of teacher education perhaps contribute most to the profession by giving assurance to prospective teachers that they will be protected from the competition of the poorly prepared.

Parents and other laymen. The quality of American education today is determined largely by the caliber of teachers. Parents whose children are being educated and all who support and are affected by education, in either publicly or privately controlled schools, can be assured that their investment will produce high-quality results only if accreditation procedures guarantee that teachers meet high standards of admission and preparation for teaching. To the extent that this fact is realized by the general public, support for accreditation of teacher education will be forthcoming.

The public is ever gullible. At all levels of the educational system the American people have always enjoyed a bargain in the quality of teaching they could obtain at low cost. With rising costs of all public services, many communities are less concerned with obtaining good teachers than with keeping school taxes and tuition in private schools as low as possible. As a consequence of such factors, it is not always as easy to promote public support for programs of accreditation for teacher education as might be assumed. Fortunately, however, key groups such as the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, the National Citizens Committee for the Public Schools, and the National School Boards Association have given leadership in interpreting to the public the importance of maintaining a program of accreditation for teacher education on a nationwide basis.⁴

⁴ *How Can We Get Enough Good Teachers?* (New York: National Citizens Committee for the Public Schools, 1951), pp. 45-50.

NEED FOR ACCREDITATION

Evidence of the need for accreditation of teacher education may be found in the low level of ability of prospective teachers compared with candidates for other professions; the diversity of standards maintained in colleges and universities for the selection and preparation of teachers; the levels of teaching and administrative practices that are tolerated in different communities; and in the need to provide uniformly high educational opportunities from state to state as well as from region to region.

LOW LEVEL OF ABILITY OF PROSPECTIVE TEACHERS. Nationwide tests of ability of college students conducted by the Selective Service Board revealed that students preparing for teaching, as a group, ranked lower than did those preparing for other professions.⁵ The results of these tests are shown in Table 23.

Studies of average mental ability levels for various types of institutions of higher learning have revealed that the student bodies of teachers' colleges, private liberal arts colleges, and of many institutions which have recently converted to multipurpose colleges rank below those of large public and private universities.⁶ In many universities and multipurpose colleges the grade-point averages of prospective teachers have been found to be lower than for the general student population.⁷ The practice of some schools of education of accepting students who have been rejected for admission to schools of engineering, law, or medicine has not only brought disrespect to programs of teacher education, but has supplied further evidence of the need for accredita-

⁵ Henry Chauncey, "The Use of the Selective Service College Qualification Test in the Deferral of College Students," *Science*, 110, No. 3001 (July 25, 1952), p. 79.

⁶ L. L. Thurstone and T. G. Thurstone, "The 1931 Psychological Examination," *Educational Record*, 8 (April, 1932), pp. 121-36.

⁷ Noel Wolfe and Toby Oxtoby, "Distributions of Ability of Students Specializing in Different Fields," *Science*, 116, No. 3013 (September 26, 1952), pp. 311-14.

TABLE 23

PERCENTAGE OF FRESHMEN IN EACH MAJOR FIELD OF STUDY WHO ACHIEVED
A SCORE OF 70 OR MORE ON COLLEGE QUALIFICATION TEST
(BASED ON DATA FOR A 10% SAMPLE OF ALL CANDIDATES TESTED
IN THE SPRING AND SUMMER OF 1951)

	Per Cent Scoring 70 or Above	Estimated No of Candidates in Total Sample
Engineering	68	17,180
Physical science and mathematics	64	11,590
Biological science	59	13,800
Social science	57	13,120
Humanities	52	9,020
General arts	48	1,280
Business and commerce	42	17,830
Agriculture	37	4,220
Education (including Physical ed.)	27	7,510
Miscellaneous	38	2,250
All Fields	53	97,800

Source: Henry Chauncey, "The Use of the Selective Service College Qualification Test in the Deferment of College Students," *Science*, Vol. 116 (Jul) 23, 1952), p. 20.

tion procedures which will raise the standards for admission to programs of teacher preparation.

DIVERSITY OF STANDARDS IN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES. A number of institutions for higher learning have maintained standards for admission to programs of teacher education that are higher than those prevailing throughout the institution. This is true, for example, in universities such as Wisconsin, Syracuse, Virginia, the University of Florida, and Willamette University. In these institutions, prospective teachers stand out as good scholars and leaders in student affairs. In the University of Wisconsin students enrolled in the School of Education have consistently led the colleges and schools in grade-point averages for many years. Similar records have been achieved in other institutions which maintain high scholastic standards for admission to the program of teacher education.

tendents of schools in many areas still win their positions by appeals to the voters rather than through professional competence. In spite of the fact that minimum requirements are established by law to insure a degree of professional preparation for candidates for office, these are usually so low that they make almost any qualified teacher—or any person holding a master's degree—eligible for candidacy. Even in school systems where a board elects the administrator, the selection may rest heavily upon political considerations as much as on professional competence for the job.

Such conditions indicate to a degree the difficulties faced in strengthening educational programs throughout the United States. They are perpetuated, in part at least, by the absence of accreditation standards for teacher education in colleges and universities.

PROVIDING UNIFORMLY HIGH EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES. The struggle to provide uniformly high educational opportunities from community to community, state to state, and region to region has been carried on largely in the fields of school finance, buildings and curricular offerings. As yet it is only beginning to be pressed in the field of teacher education. It is true that certification requirements for teaching have contributed to the standardization of teacher preparation. This achievement has often been more "on paper" than actual, because standards have varied so much between different colleges and universities.

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF ACCREDITING

The accreditation movement began in the United States with efforts by colleges to insure high quality of preparation of students for college. As secondary schools began admitting a larger proportion of youth of high school age and expanding their offerings to provide for those who were not preparing for higher education, individual colleges attempted to bring order into the high school curriculum by establishing standards for college entrance. In 1871, the University of Michigan, under the leadership of President Angell, formed a commission to inspect the high schools

of the state for the purpose of evaluating the quality of teaching, character of the curriculum, and the achievement of students.⁹ This commission established the well-known pattern of admitting graduates of approved high schools to college without examination. By the end of the century the idea had spread to more than 200 colleges throughout the nation. In a number of states it still prevails today. Usually the accrediting is done by the state departments of education for those schools which do not meet the standards of a regional accrediting association or for privately controlled high schools which are not regulated by the state. In some cases the procedure is employed also to accredit the work of smaller private colleges.

Colleges and universities began joining together to form regional accrediting agencies when it became apparent that students were increasingly crossing state lines to attend college. The New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools was established in 1885, the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland, in 1892, the North Central Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools, in 1891, and the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Southern States, in 1895. The College Entrance Examination Board, which contributed further to the standardization of the high school curriculum for college admission, was created in 1899.

In the 1890's the National Education Association began taking the initiative to standardize the college preparatory curriculum of the high school. Its famous Committee of Ten reported in 1893; the Committee on College Entrance Requirements, in 1899. These developments in accreditation of high schools soon spread to the cooperating colleges. Regional associations established commissions for the accreditation of colleges as well as high schools.

As early as 1870 the United States Commissioner of Education began listing institutions of collegiate grade in the

⁹ R. Freeman Butts, *A Cultural History of Education*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1947, p. 512.

United States. In 1911 an effort was made to refine the listing into a type of accreditation based upon the scholastic records of students in master's degree programs.¹⁰ Protests of institutions of higher learning caused the President of the United States, William Howard Taft, to refuse to approve the publication of such a qualitative list.

The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching took a hand in the developing accreditation movement by providing financial support, in 1906, to the committee which formulated the definition of the Carnegie unit of credit. This formula for indicating amount of learning in a given subject is still used in high schools and colleges today. The Association of American Universities developed the first national list of accredited institutions of higher learning in 1911. Scholastic achievement of graduates in master's degree programs was the qualitative criterion employed to judge an institution. The original purpose of the list was to recommend to German universities those colleges and universities in the United States whose graduates should be accepted by them. The Association adopted the standards for accreditation recommended by the American Council on Education in 1922 and continued to publish its list of accredited colleges and universities until 1948, when it was discontinued.¹¹

The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools drew up standards for liberal arts colleges in 1909. Its first list of accredited institutions was published in 1913. In 1918 it adopted standards for junior colleges and teachers colleges. The Northwest Association began accrediting colleges in 1918, the Middle States and Southern Associations, both in 1921. No lists are published by the New England and the Western Associations.

The American Council on Education published standards for accrediting institutions of higher learning in

¹⁰ J. Harold Goldthorpe "Office of Education Relationships to Educational Accreditation" *Higher Education*, II (December, 1951), p. 51-54.

¹¹ E. D. Grizzell "Accreditation," *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, Walter S. Montec, ed. (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1950), pp. 1-5.

1922. This culminated a sustained study, from 1905 to 1922, by the National Conference Committee on Standards of the Council. *The report influenced accrediting activities of the regional associations as well as the Association of American Universities.*

Accreditation of professional schools has grown with the strength of professional groups. Whereas institutions of higher learning and secondary schools joined together to determine standards for general accreditation, the standards for professional fields tend to be set by practicing members of the profession through the facilities of associations of professional schools. In 1907, the Council on Medical Education and Hospitals of the American Medical Association began to classify medical schools. The American Bar Association followed a similar pattern in 1921. The National Association of Schools of Music undertook accrediting in 1925, the American Library Association in 1925, the American Association of Teachers Colleges in 1927, and the Committee on Engineering Schools of the Engineers' Council for Professional Development in 1935. By 1938, the number of professional organizations engaged in accreditation had grown so large that the Association of Land Grant Colleges and Universities and the National Association of State Universities formed a joint committee to reduce the number of agencies engaged in accrediting activities and to restore responsibility for accrediting to the individual institutions and the state.¹² This committee's efforts led to the establishment of the National Commission on Accrediting in 1949.

With the creation of the National Commission on Accrediting, which paralleled efforts undertaken in 1918 by the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education to accredit member institutions, the issue as to whether teacher education should be accredited as a professional field, outside the scope of the general accreditation of liberal arts programs, provoked a nationwide controversy.

¹² Grizzell, *op. cit.*, p. 5.

This conflict was one factor in a revolution in the entire field of accreditation of which the problems in accrediting teacher education were only one aspect. Early efforts of the National Commission on Accrediting to disregard the education of teachers as a professional function rallied the proponents of professional accreditation for teacher education and led to the establishment of the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education. This latter body has been recognized tentatively by the National Commission. In cooperation with the regional associations it is now being established as the national agency for accreditation of teacher education.¹³

CONFLICT OVER RESPONSIBILITY

The National Commission on Accrediting was created in response to a recognized need for resolving the multiplying conflicts over responsibility for accreditation in institutions of higher learning. The problems of accrediting grew primarily out of the multiplicity of agencies operating at the state, regional and national levels, the complexity of procedures employed, and the duplication and costs of reports required by different general and specific agencies for accrediting. The growing tendency of accrediting bodies to dictate policy, budgets, facilities, and programs was bitterly opposed by administrative authorities of colleges and universities. Disagreements about minimum standards, and imbalances that resulted when demands of accrediting agencies were met in some specific fields at the expense of other areas of the program which did not enjoy similar external support, contributed to the majority's feeling that accrediting procedures needed regulation.

LACK OF COORDINATION BETWEEN STATE, REGIONAL AND NATIONAL AGENCIES. The topsy-like growth of accrediting bodies and procedures produced duplication, disagree-

¹³ W. E. Armstrong, "Developments in the Accreditation of Teacher Education," *National Education Association Journal*, 46 (February, 1957), pp. 113-15.

ment, jurisdictional disputes, and omissions between agencies at the state, regional and national levels. Many of these conflicts impinged most heavily upon the administrative officials of the institutions involved. State departments, subject-matter professional groups, the established professions, the National Education Association, the regional associations, the American Association of Universities, as well as many of the institutions, themselves, all have sought in one way or another to engage in accrediting activities. The resulting lack of coordination found many of these agencies operating independently of the others, overlapping each other in gathering data and in the responsibilities assumed, employing differing procedures and standards, and sometimes issuing conflicting reports.

At the time of the creation of the National Commission on Accrediting, which was charged with the responsibility for bringing order out of the chaotic conditions, the practices relating to accreditation in teacher education were similarly confused. In some states the departments of public instruction took responsibility for accrediting all institutions; in others, only for those institutions not on the list of the regional association. In all cases, state departments conducted a form of accreditation for teacher education through the administrative procedure of issuing teachers' certificates. State universities accredited the work of teachers colleges and private colleges in some states. Often this function was thrust upon them by the practice by out-of-state institutions of relying upon the judgment of admission officers of the state university regarding the validity of credit from an institution not accredited by the regional association. The liberal arts and general subject-matter work included in programs of teacher education were being accredited by the regional association in those states where regional accreditation was carried on. The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education had begun accrediting institutions for teacher education purposes in 1918. Already 281 institutions were carried on its accredited list although many had not actually undergone evaluation.

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In addition, a number of professional interest groups, such as the American Psychological Association, the American Personnel and Guidance Association, the Philosophy of Education Association, and a newly formed Association of Professors of School Administration, were beginning to make suggestions, and in some cases prescriptions, regarding the nature and scope of graduate work in their fields.

MULTIPLICITY OF ACCREDITING AGENCIES. Not only did conflicts exist in some fields (nursing, occupational therapy, physical therapy) between accrediting bodies at state, regional, and national levels, but two or three organizations were competing with each other to accredit the same programs. Presidents of major universities reported that their institutions were subject to the accreditation processes and expenses of numerous different bodies. The cost of accreditation becomes high for any institution when consideration is given to fees and dues paid accrediting associations and their respective parent organizations. If such a figure were also to include the pro-rated cost of faculty and staff time devoted to provide the information required by the various accrediting groups, then the figure would assume an even higher monetary appropriation. The task of making available general information about such matters as enrollments, course offerings, facilities or equipment was complicated further by the fact that rarely did any two accrediting bodies seek the same information. Nor were they willing to accept basic information about the institution on a standard form; each demanded responses on its own form sheet.

Since accreditation had come to signify a high standard in the minds of students, professional groups, and the general public, institutions could ill afford not to comply with the demands of accrediting agencies. To do so was sufficient cause for being dropped from the list of accredited institutions.

DISAGREEMENT REGARDING MINIMUM STANDARDS. In the absence of valid definitions of minimum standards of excel-

lence in various educational programs, disagreements between different official bodies and within professional groups prevailed. Often standards used for accrediting purposes were highly arbitrary. They tended to place emphasis upon quantitative provisions rather than upon qualitative results. Size of enrollments, amount of space and equipment provided, number of books in the library, amount of budget, number of courses offered, provision for and amount of research, number of professors employed and degrees held, are examples of the quantitative factors most generally considered. Such emphasis often favored the large institution and did injustice to the small. The quantitative approach gave little attention to such important matters as caliber of students, excellence in teaching, quality of courses, and student achievement. When quantitative standards were rigidly enforced, as often they were, institutions tended to conform to the dictates of accrediting bodies rather than to pursue the task of creatively improving their programs.

The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools advanced a point of view and a framework of accrediting procedures in 1931 which have gradually introduced a greater degree of flexibility into accrediting procedures.¹⁴ The intent of its proposal was to encourage colleges and universities to push beyond minimum standards by continuing efforts to improve the quality of their educational programs. The Southern Association conducted a study in 1946 which concentrated on ways in which high schools and colleges could more adequately meet the needs of youth.¹⁵ In 1947, the American Council on Education sponsored the Cooperative Study in General Education, which involved twenty-two colleges across the nation and

¹⁴ G. F. Zook and M. E. Haggerty, *The Evolution of Higher Institutions* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1936), p. 202.

¹⁵ Commission on Curricular Problems and Research, Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, "Cooperative Study for the Improvement of Education," *Southern Association Quarterly*, 10 (August, 1946), pp. 132, 372-490.

was designed to establish more valid criteria to guide educational practice.¹⁶

TIME-LAG IN ACCREDITING NEW FIELDS. A problem that caused intense internal conflict in institutions was the time-lag in accrediting new fields. With accreditation procedures firmly established in older professional and scientific areas and with each of these making demands on institutions for budgetary support for staff, buildings, library materials, and equipment to meet accreditation standards, non-accredited fields suffered. Often, administrative officials have no choice but to neglect subject fields which do not enjoy the support of outside accrediting bodies in order to meet the demands of those that are accredited.

Teacher education was one of the new fields caught in this power struggle. Its only source of strength came from the certification standards maintained for graduates. Although they have supported the offering of specified credits in particular fields, these standards have often been of little help in obtaining adequate laboratory facilities, faculty time for research on problems of teacher education, small classes, or adequate supervision for student teaching. They have been ineffective also in the area of liberal studies and the subject fields in which teachers prepare. As a result of accreditation pressures on colleges and universities, perhaps the most neglected fields have been those of the humanities and social studies.

ACCREDITING AGENCIES AND PROCEDURES

Against the background of revolution that is occurring in the field of accreditation, and in spite of the issues that divide support for accreditation programs, progress is being achieved to establish recognized accrediting agencies, define their functions, and refine their procedures for appraising the quality of collegiate programs

¹⁶ American Council on Education, *Cooperative Study in General Education*, *Cooperation in General Education* (The Council, 1957)

NATIONAL COMMISSION ON ACCREDITING. The efforts of the joint committee of the Land Grant Association of Colleges and Universities and the Association of State Universities resulted in the formation of the National Commission on Accrediting in 1919. Its membership consisted of forty-two representatives from seven associations, each having six members. These included: The Association of American Colleges, Association of Land Grant Colleges and Universities, Association of Urban Universities, National Association of State Universities, Association of American Universities, Association of Teacher Education Institutions, and American Association of Junior Colleges.

The National Commission undertook the task of studying problems and making recommendations regarding accreditation. It also was assigned the function of serving as an informational clearing house for both regional and professional accrediting associations. Problems to which it gave attention included: the multiplicity of accrediting organizations, duplication in accrediting processes, institutional autonomy, simplification of procedures, the need for qualitative standards, and the proposal of policies for coordination of accreditation practices.

In 1952, the National Commission recommended to its member associations that the following steps be followed:¹⁷

1. The six Regional Accrediting Associations should undertake the task of coordinating all accrediting activities for the institutions of higher learning within their respective geographical areas.
 - a. National professional organizations or special interest groups desiring to participate in the accreditation of some phase of higher education should consult with and participate in the development of satisfactory institution-wide accrediting activities under the direction of the regional associations.

¹⁷ "Recommendations of the Committee on Professional Education Relative to the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education," *North Central Association Quarterly*, 31 (October, 1956), pp. 178-79.

devoted exclusively to the evaluation and accreditation of teacher education programs."¹⁸ Its original governing body of twenty-one members was drawn as follows from five organizations: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, six members; Council of Chief State School Officers, three members; National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education, three members; the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, NEA, six members; and the National School Boards Association, three members.

Negotiations with the National Commission on Accrediting for recognition of the Council as the national agency for accreditation of teacher education uncovered objections to the structure of the National Council. In 1955 the Commission requested modification in the membership of the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education to provide majority control from institutional representatives and asked that it work cooperatively with the duly constituted authorities in regional associations.

The reorganized structure of the National Council, effective June 1, 1957, provided for the following representations: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, seven members; collegiate representatives appointed by an *ad hoc* committee designated by the National Commission on Accreditation, three members; Council of Chief State School Officers, one member; National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education and Certification, one member; National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, NEA, six members; National School Boards Association, one member. The total membership in the reorganized structure was 19 instead of the original 21. The change in membership provided for an increase in representation from collegiate institutions which include the private liberal arts colleges and institutions in the Associa-

¹⁸ National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education, *A Statement of Purposes, Policies, and Procedures* (Washington, D. C.: The Council, 1957), p. 1.

tion of American Universities. It also reduced the representation from legal bodies. The number of representatives from the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, which includes all types of institutions which prepare teachers, was increased from six to seven.

The objective of the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education, as expressed in its Constitution, is to bring about improvement of teacher education in the United States. It expressly seeks to attain this goal through:

1. The formulation of policies, standards, and procedures for the accreditation of institutional programs of teacher education.
2. The accreditation of programs of teacher education and the annual publication of a list of institutions whose programs of teacher education are accredited by the Council.
3. The encouragement of constituent organizations and other groups in the performance of their respective roles in the improvement of teacher education.

The list of accredited institutions published by the Council in September, 1959, included 334 colleges and universities. Its accreditation schedule permits it to conduct in cooperation with the regional associations about thirty evaluations each year. Many of the institutions included on its accredited list were originally approved by the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education prior to the establishment of the National Council. When the National Council took over accreditation from the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, its first list was composed of the 284 institutions in good standing with the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education on July 1, 1954. New institutions are added annually to the list which is published in July of each year.

REGIONAL ACCREDITING ASSOCIATIONS. Under the developing pattern for accreditation of professional programs endorsed by the National Commission, the regional associations are assuming roles of central importance. They function to coordinate all accrediting activities, collect basic information

for all professional accreditation, and take final responsibility for determining the over-all accredited status of an institution.

The responsibilities of the regional associations to general accreditation of undergraduate liberal arts programs are being defined. Not so clear is the extent to which the regional associations will undertake the accreditation of graduate programs. The Southern Association established a committee on graduate work but its early efforts to prescribe for member institutions the structure of their graduate schools, and to rule out consideration of professional degrees in the field of education, met with rejection by the Association.

Accreditation of graduate programs is of utmost importance to programs of teacher education inasmuch as the first year of graduate study is coming to be regarded as a continuing aspect in the preparation of the master teacher. Specialization for positions in educational leadership is tending to be postponed to the post-master's degree level. At the same time, many teachers' and multipurpose colleges are introducing graduate programs. High quality graduate work to prepare master teachers or specialists in the various fields of professional work will be achieved only if accrediting standards restrict graduate work to institutions whose faculty, facilities, general standards, and traditions are outstanding.

POLICIES AND PROCEDURES FOR ACCREDITATION. With tentative working agreements having been reached between the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education and the regional associations, policies and procedures for the accreditation of teacher education programs are being refined.

Policies. Two important policy decisions were made by the National Council in 1957. The first provided that institutions which meet some, but not all, standards for accreditation be placed upon a provisional list of accredited institutions. Provisional status may be continued for a maximum of three

years. If deficiencies are not removed within the three-year period, accreditation is lost.

The second policy provided for the accrediting of institutions in one or more of the following categories: (1) elementary-school teachers; (2) secondary-school teachers; and (3) school service personnel, such as school administrators, supervisors, guidance counselors. This policy provides for the published list of accredited institutions to indicate the categories in which an institution is accredited to prepare teachers and school personnel.

At its May meeting in 1957, the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education approved for distribution and study a statement relating to the curriculum for teacher education.¹⁹ The purpose of the statement was to promote the nation-wide study of the content of programs of teacher education. Out of such study it was hoped that agreement could be reached regarding the official policy the National Council should adopt.

Five basic assumptions were listed as underlying programs of teacher education today.

1. All or nearly all American youth will be in school for twelve years, and 40 per cent of the high-school graduates will enter college.
2. The job of the teacher will become more complex as the nature of the society increases in complexity.
3. Teachers will continue to be prepared by a variety of types of colleges and universities.
4. The typical elementary-school teacher will teach a wide variety of subjects to a single group of children. The typical secondary-school teacher will spend the major portion of the day teaching one or more areas of subject matter to more than one group of children.
5. The typical teacher will be expected to learn much on the job, as a student of his professional field, and will return to college to extend his formal education.

¹⁹ W. Earl Armstrong, "The Teacher Education Curriculum," *The Journal of Teacher Education*, 8, No. 3 (1957), p. 3

Upon these assumptions the Council proposed to rest a number of principles of curriculum organization and emphasis to guide the appraisal of programs of teacher education. The purpose of obtaining consideration regarding such concepts was to bring about agreement among those responsible for programs of teacher education. It was conceived that such agreements would form the basis for criteria of evaluation. There were nine major beliefs listed:

1. The curriculum for teacher education should be purposefully planned. Purposeful planning was described to mean a well-defined pattern for the education of teachers which provided for (a) the listing of the specified courses required in each teacher education curriculum; (b) the designation of points of entry in each teacher education curriculum and the qualifications for such entry; and (c) internal consistency and unity.
2. Some curriculum patterns are more promising of desirable results than are others. This belief stressed the point that research has demonstrated the superiority of certain curriculum patterns to the extent that they should be recognized as superior.
3. All teachers should be well-educated persons. Undoubtedly the need for stating what would seem to be an obvious premise grows from controversy over whether those who have had greatest responsibility for teacher education have given prior attention to producing broadly educated teachers.
4. The curriculum for teacher education should provide an area of subject-matter concentration for every teacher. Two reasons were given for this principle; first, every teacher, whether he plans to teach at the elementary- or secondary-school level, needs the intellectual strength that comes from having achieved depth of scholarship in a field; secondly, all teachers need subject-matter competence in the performance of their professional functions.
5. Teachers should have specific preparation for their professional responsibilities.
6. The curriculum for teacher education should include a well-organized program of professional laboratory experiences.

7. The curriculum for teacher education should be attractive to capable students who seek a good basic education for themselves and an adequate preparation for a professional career.
8. The period is rapidly approaching when a minimum of five years of college preparation will be regarded as essential for all fully qualified elementary- and secondary-school teachers.
9. The curriculum for teacher education should result from the cooperative efforts of the total faculty.

Procedures. The procedures followed in accrediting involve the participation of representatives of both the regional association and the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education. The regional association furnishes general information about the institution and supplies its appraisal of the standards of the total program. Its representatives on the visiting committee are concerned with the general aspects of higher education.

The visiting committee is usually composed of three or four members, selected from other institutions and from the profession. The Committee typically spends two or three days visiting the institution, in order to study its facilities, program, faculty competence and matters that relate specifically to the preparation of teachers. Its report to the National Council forms the basis for judgments by the Council regarding accreditation status.

MAJOR ISSUES IN ACCREDITATION

Out of the developments in accreditation which have taken place since 1950 have come certain general major issues that bear directly upon accreditation policies for teacher education.²⁰

SHOULD CONTROL OF ACCREDITATION BE RETAINED BY THE INSTITUTIONS INVOLVED? Those who answer this question affirmatively hold that college faculty and administrative

²⁰W. E. Armstrong, "Progress in Accreditation of Teacher Education," *American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education Yearbook*, 1955, pp. 143-53.

officers should not yield responsibility for accrediting to an agency that is controlled by non-institutional groups. They deny the authority of a profession to police itself through the process of accreditation of professional schools. They argue that inasmuch as the integrity of the total institution is the responsibility of its duly elected officials and appointed faculty members as well as its regents, such groups should set their own standards. They point to the long-established self-governing practices of regional associations of institutions as the best example for the organization of accrediting procedures.

Those who favor accreditation of professional programs by members of the profession call attention to the responsibility professional groups have taken for admission, raising standards of preparation, and for maintaining high standards of professional practice. They see no serious conflict between efforts of professional associations to accredit and the objectives of the institutions of higher learning.

SHOULD PARTICIPATION IN PROGRAMS OF ACCREDITATION BE VOLUNTARY? The pattern of voluntary participation in programs of accreditation has long been followed in regional associations. Institutions apply for membership if they desire to be appraised. They are free to function without accreditation by a particular accrediting body if they choose.

Accreditation by national professional groups in medicine, law, and engineering, has become such a strong endorsement, however, that nonaccredited professional programs have little chance of survival. In addition, graduates of nonaccredited programs find it difficult to gain admittance to practice. The effect is compulsory accreditation. Under such conditions, the professional accrediting agency has the power to control the number and size of programs approved for operation. This means, actually, that the profession can limit the number of prospective practitioners prepared. It is in such practices that supporters of voluntary participation in programs of accreditation see grave dangers.

SHOULD LEGAL AGENCIES BE PERMITTED REPRESENTATION ON ACCREDITATION BOOIES? Many feel that if legal agencies, such as local, state and federal governmental units, are represented on accreditation boards the procedure may be too closely associated with political forces that can weaken or destroy the validity of any results. It is true that state officials have long taken an active part in the accreditation procedures of the regional accrediting associations. It is pointed out, however, by those opposed to including legal representatives that such representation is personal and that state department officials do not serve as official agents of the state.

State departments of public instruction engage in accreditation of institutions of higher learning. In New York State all institutions are so accredited. Those who see advantages in including representatives of legal agencies on accrediting bodies point to the responsibility such officials have for upholding standards, to their traditional role in giving leadership for educational improvements, to their knowledge and insights and to the competence such personnel would bring to the process. They also warn against the dangers of permitting college and university faculty members and administrative officers to maintain exclusive control of accreditation.

SHOULD NOT ACCREDITATION BE RESTRICTED TO THE REGIONAL LEVEL? The claims that associations of institutions formed on a regional basis know their own problems better, are more responsive to the will of their publics, and are better able to maintain high standards, are advanced by those who believe that national accreditation bodies are unnecessary and undesirable. The opposite view holds that professional standards must be uniformly high throughout the nation, that certain types of institutions, parochial colleges, for example, have more in common with their own kind than they do with regional groups of institutions, and that though the regional associations make valuable contributions to general evaluation they often do not have the best competence to evaluate highly specialized professional fields.

IS NOT GENERAL ACCREDITATION OF THE TOTAL INSTITUTION BY THE REGIONAL ASSOCIATION SUFFICIENT? Undoubt-

edly, some members of the associations which originally formed the National Commission on Accreditation entertained hopes that all specialized accrediting agencies could be abolished. Their aim was to establish the single accreditation of the entire program of a college or university by the regional association as the only accrediting practice. Negotiations with established professional accrediting bodies soon brought such ambitions into direct conflict with the interests of members of the professions. A compromise was reached which established the regional accrediting associations as coordinators of all accrediting activities but accepted the determination of professional organizations to continue their own accrediting activities.

ISSUES RELATED DIRECTLY TO TEACHER EDUCATION. Several key questions relate directly to efforts to establish a program of professional accreditation for teacher education. Some of these considerations concern the basic issues already stated. Others grow out of the unique and complex organization of the total program for teacher education in institutions for higher learning.

Is teaching a profession? How this question is answered determines whether teacher education should be permitted to engage in accreditation procedures comparable to those followed for other professional schools. Throughout the controversy which has focused on accreditation in general and the development of procedures to accredit teacher education there have been some who deny that teaching is a profession. Their position is that preparation for successful teaching requires no special professionalized program. They hold that the only necessary preparation for teaching is the completion of a program of liberal arts. To all who subscribe to this view, the general accreditation of an institution by the regional association is all that is required to guarantee that an institution will turn out competent teachers.

The opposing position holds that although teaching lacks many of the characteristics of other professions as yet, it is in fact a true profession and will ultimately achieve high professional standards and recognition. Supporters of this view

argue that the lack of professional accreditation is a major factor in retarding the development of teaching to its deserved professional status. They point out that as long as every college is permitted to prepare teachers, regardless of its standards for admission, instruction, or graduation, the teaching profession is weakened. They charge that many liberal arts colleges oppose the professionalization of teaching in order to protect their enrollments, that they are not giving proper emphasis to teacher education, and that they do not desire to provide the financial support necessary for high-quality professional programs.²¹

Those who believe that teaching is a profession and will benefit from the support of the profession to develop high standards of training for those preparing to practice it, can point to the long-standing leadership of the National Education Association for the accreditation movement. They find additional support in the high-level program of the Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards of the NEA and its many affiliated state commissions to improve the standards for the profession. In addition, they have found clinching arguments for their position from the united support that has come from numerous professional groups, associations of school boards, state professional groups, lay and civic organizations, as well as from faculty and administrative officers of many colleges and universities.

Should representation on accrediting agencies for teacher education be proportionate to the subject fields and various types of institutions involved in the preparation of teachers? Faculties of liberal arts colleges and of privately controlled institutions seek proportionate representation on accreditation bodies for teacher education. In terms of the contribution faculties of liberal arts make to the total amount of college work prospective teachers take, they feel they should be represented on accrediting bodies. Likewise, private colleges, which produce a third of the teachers in the United

²¹ C. J. Turk, "Accreditation of Teacher Education," *Minnesota Journal of Education*, 36 (March, 1956) pp 19-20

States, feel that they should be represented accordingly. On the other hand, it is claimed that many of these faculty members and institutions have shown no genuine interest in teacher education as a professional field, that their programs are make-shift and that such groups seek control of accreditation of teacher education to inhibit the development of the work as a program of preparation for a professional field.²²

Can the National Council enforce high minimum standards for teacher education that will deny accreditation to weak programs? Those who doubt that the National Council will be able to enforce high minimum standards offer evidence to support their views. The Council established its original list of "approved" institutions for teacher education by simply endorsing the membership in good standing of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education. These institutions included some of the weaker teachers colleges and multipurpose colleges and omitted some of the strongest public and private universities. It is true that the AACTE had established its list through a program of accreditation, but its standards of necessity were established by the caliber of institutions representing a majority of its membership. With the National Council having made its beginning with a list that included many weak institutions, some doubt if it will ever be able to exclude from accreditation any institutions which are similarly weak.

Further doubt that the Council will be able to exert sufficient strength to discredit weak programs of teacher education is found in the extent to which such institutions now approved by the council are introducing programs of graduate work. Discerning critics point out that the Council already finds it necessary to approve institutions whose resources for graduate work in teacher education are known to be inadequate by qualitative standards.

A third concern grows from the procedure employed in accreditation. The emphasis is placed upon encouraging

²² W. F. Kelley, "Current Trends in Requirements for Teacher Certification: Dangers to the Colleges," *National Catholic Education Association Bulletin*, 52 (August, 1955), pp. 219-22.

institutions to strengthen programs of teacher education. While in the long run, it is recognized that this approach provides more freedom for institutional initiative and development, at the same time it encourages some of the weaknesses that have plagued programs of teacher education: multiplicity and duplication of courses, over-emphasis on pedagogy, lack of agreement regarding the professional sequence, and inadequate stress upon the subject fields and general education.

On the other hand, those who have faith that the National Council will be able to establish high minimum standards that deny accreditation to weak institutions, point to the fact that institutions, even though they have been included on the list of approved colleges, are under pressure from the Council to remove weaknesses. They stress the fact that the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education is not subservient to the participating agencies from which its membership is drawn. Rather it is a self-governing body, responsible to no segment of the profession, colleges or universities, or governmental units.

Flaws that are now seen in accreditation standards of the Council are charged to the newness of the organization, to the fact that it has had to devote much of its energies thus far to establishing its organization for conformance with the recommendations of the National Commission on Accrediting and to the necessity of beginning with the membership institutions of the AACTE, since no other group of colleges and universities had been accredited specifically for teacher education purposes. Those who defend the steps taken by the Council stress the wisdom of the approach employed in accrediting procedures as proven by the experiences of the regional accrediting bodies over the years. They also cite evidence to show that this approach already is bringing about rapid improvements in member institutions in such important areas as selection of students, quality of staff, nature and balance of programs of preparation, improvement of the professional sequence, provision of plant and equipment, and general budgetary support for teacher education.

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CHAPTER 19

Preparation of Teacher Educators

The selection and preparation of personnel to teach teachers assumes an importance parallel to the emphasis given to the professional preparation of teachers themselves. The discussion in this chapter relates to both the graduate and undergraduate teaching personnel, to subject-matter specialists, to professional education specialists, to general education specialists, to supervisors and directors of laboratory experiences, and to administrative personnel and professional technicians.

QUALIFICATIONS OF THE TEACHER EDUCATION STAFF

It takes many different types of persons and many different kinds of competencies to make a well-balanced staff for the education of teachers. In considering the selection and preparation of the teacher education staff one might examine the special competencies of each type of position, but instead attention is focused upon the common denominators of the different assignments. Among these are six qualities that should, it is suggested, be possessed by every member of the teacher education staff: (1) personal fitness for the close personal relations that exist in teacher education; (2) high intellectual acuity, (3) competency in an area of specialization;

(4) skill in the art of teaching; (5) skill in the communicative arts; and (6) a deep urge to know and skill in seeking the truth.

PERSONAL FITNESS FOR TEACHING. The education of teachers involves close work with *persons* as contrasted with other occupations that may involve principally work with such things as books, machines, or material forces. Accordingly there must be a deep concern about values, personal and social adjustment, and citizenship qualities. Teachers are expected to be good representatives of their social order. While they must not necessarily be narrow moralists, they must know and subscribe to the values of the society for which they are expected to provide leadership and help maintain and extend these standards through the vehicle of teacher education. Next to the ministry, no group has more expected of it than teachers and the trainers of teachers. Added strength could be achieved in most teacher education institutions through an application of this idea.

Teacher educators should have the personal qualities expected of teachers (see Chapter 7 for a discussion).

HIGH INTELLECTUAL ACUITY. No profession makes greater intellectual demands than teaching. It is true that the higher financial potential of other professions and of industry has made heavy inroads into the personnel and members of the teaching profession, but it is a short-sighted society that does not see to it that the best minds teach. This fact is becoming increasingly clear as one observes the international situation. The major weapon of a democracy is its intellectual leadership. The prime concern of employing officials in every teacher education institution should be the intellectual acuity of teacher education personnel.

The search for talent in all walks of life, from mechanics to scientists, is being pressed with vigor. The draft upon our human resources will be heavy and the supply of thoroughly competent college teachers certain to be inadequate. The number of college teachers needed in the decade ahead has been predicted by numerous analysts. While these con-

mates vary, even the most conservative indicate that possibly twice as many college teachers will be needed in fifteen years hence. Many who are currently preparing for college teaching will not actually teach; they will transfer to other higher paying occupations. Thus the competition for talent will be strong.

COMPETENCY IN AN AREA OF SPECIALIZATION. While all members of the teacher education staff are expected to be generally well educated, each is supposed also to be prepared in depth in some area of specialization. The teacher educator is supposed to speak with the authority of first-hand knowledge about some important aspect of education. Some achieve a greater command of more subjects and demonstrate sounder insight and better training than others, but every person should have at least some area which he knows thoroughly.

One of the most telling criticisms of teacher education is its alleged superficiality. The professional educationist has been widely criticized for this weakness. Too many professors feel competent to teach almost anything that seems to be timely and promising. From the record of selection there would seem to be far too much laxity in the matter of choosing the personnel for teacher education institutions. Graduate deans speaking about training requirements use such terms as mastery of a definite field of knowledge and the ability to integrate the field of specialization with the larger domain of knowledge, devotion to learning and motivation by disinterested curiosity, intellectual competency and ability to lead students in creative effort, and depth of training that will insure strong scholarship.¹

SKILL IN THE COMMUNICATIVE ARTS. Whether learned from systematic study or acquired from experience, skill in the communicative arts is an important and necessary aspect of teaching. A central concern in all teaching is the effec-

¹ Henry E. Bent, "Professionalization of the Ph. D. Degree," *Journal of Higher Education*, 30 (March, 1959), pp. 140-45.

tiveness of the communication. It is customary to test for speech defects at the undergraduate level, which is important, but the need goes deeper than this to skill in organizing and presenting ideas.

The poor quality of the written work of students is frequently observed, a weakness that is too frequently exhibited by the professors themselves. In oral exposition some teachers can present ideas and information in clear and well-organized fashion. Yet often the class presentations of professors are so disorganized that they are difficult to follow. Some excuse their ineptness on the ground that they are dealing with a specialized subject and a technical vocabulary. But the fault has much deeper implications: it suggests lack of clarity in thinking, failure to appreciate how people learn, and inability to arrange material in a manner to make it intelligible. Training and skill in the communicative arts are an important aspect of the training of all teacher educators.

SKILL IN THE ART OF TEACHING. While teachers in academic subject-matter fields have been widely criticized because of their ineptness or lack of interest in good teaching, professional educators have been persistently cited because of their failure to practice what they preach. There are many examples of poor teachers who, because of their superior insights or superior personal qualities, have become effective teacher trainers; but everything else being equal the advantage is with the *skilled teacher*. The research specialist, both in academic subject matter and professional education, has become an important functionnaire in teacher education, but even when divorced from the classroom, he too will ordinarily need to have some skill in communicating with others.

The educators of teachers should be able to demonstrate, as well as verbalize about teaching. On the side of good teaching some would go so far as to insist that every teacher educator should have daily contact with a group of elementary and secondary-school youngsters with whom he can preserve and improve his skill in dealing with the young. This

may not be feasible for all; but it is not too much to expect that all teachers of teachers, regardless of their area of specialization, show satisfactory skill in teaching.

A DEEP DESIRE TO KNOW. Every educator of teachers must have a deep desire to know and possess skill in searching for truth. He will have a subject specialty in which he will study intensively, but he will also be a student of a teaching at some level. There is much discussion about the scholar-teacher. Whether one gets his knowledge from the study of the writings of others or finds it for himself, it should be precise and substantial. Whether it is necessary actually to engage in research or not is a moot question. Aside from its value as a means of producing new insight, active research work is a helpful means of keeping the minds of teachers sensitive to the discoveries of others. Presumably this can be done through study of research reports; but whatever the means, the insight and valid knowledge attained must be substantial. Too many people try to teach content about which they may be reasonably well informed but about which their understanding may be relatively superficial. The jack-of-all-trades approach to college teaching, even at the undergraduate level, presents a very unhealthy situation incompatible with the importance of scholarly teaching among college teachers. Teacher educators have a unique opportunity to tie research in both content and method to an on-going operation. Some professors just teach, but some teach and learn more about their subject and how best to teach it in the process of doing so. Each and every class presents not merely an opportunity to teach but an opportunity to learn more about one's subject and how to organize and present the content most pertinently.

Scholarship is not incompatible with good teaching; yet as a result of the pouring-in methods commonly employed in undergraduate instruction, the search for truth has become separated from the processes of learning and teaching. The whole operation might be reconceived in a manner to utilize the vast reservoir of human resources for research provided by the student body. Almost everyone seems to want

more help. Why not use students as help by involving them in the process of discovery and verification? Experiencing this approach in college teaching, students might become more inclined to choose to teach. The educative process could be restructured in such a manner as to make the whole operation a socially productive experience as well as an effective learning process.

We have here conceived of the scholar-teacher as performing two functions: the critical examination of the thinking of others as found in documents, and the formulation and testing of hypotheses through new appeals to experience. These processes can be applied to both content and method; they can be applied in both the classroom and the laboratory. The educator of teachers must do both if he is to engage in both scholarly teaching and scholarly research.

DEGREE REQUIREMENTS

Some of the qualities desired for college teachers are related to degree requirements, while some are not. The extent of the relationship depends somewhat upon the particular degree. Nonetheless, the minimum degree requirement for all those engaged in the education of teachers should be, it would seem today, the doctorate. Just as the baccalaureate is the generally accepted minimum degree for the precollege teacher, the doctorate is rapidly becoming the minimum degree requirement for college teaching. The differences, and there will be many of them, arising from variations in the aptitude and competence of particular individuals in a given position and from the demands made by different assignments, should be taken care of through adequate employment practices and postdoctoral study, training, and experience; but a doctorate has become expected of all college teachers.

The nature of the degree will depend largely upon the type of professional assignment anticipated. Whatever the degree, its prerequisites should include specialized training in the area which the teacher educator is expected to teach. Considerable discussion has taken place concerning which

degree is most appropriate for the professional staff—the Doctor of Philosophy degree or the Doctor of Education. The degree requirements across the country are probably not, however, sufficiently standardized to permit an objective appraisal of this question.

To begin with there are, regardless of degree, substantial differences in graduate admission practices, both with regard to qualities considered important and standards of undergraduate work. Too many institutions which prepare personnel for teacher education institutions simply have not given serious consideration to the qualities needed in teacher educators. Then, too, the admission standards of some institutions offering the doctorate are woefully low. Almost anyone can get into some graduate schools. Selection practices are as important as degree requirements.

Graduate work requirements vary greatly from institution to institution. The methods, content, and expectancies associated with undergraduate study have in too many institutions permeated the graduate courses; consequently, many institutions which offer the doctorate have little or no distinctly graduate work. This extension of undergraduate purposes and standards into graduate study is a much more important issue than concerning which degree is granted.

Another problem common to all degrees is the means and emphasis placed upon practice, the translation of knowledge into performance. Again this is a much more important matter than the type of degree. Some institutions have set up internships of various sorts that are required over and above the ordinary residence degree specifications. In some cases, internships are required on a noncredit basis, either as prerequisites, concomitants, or postdoctoral training for the teacher educator's special needs in this respect. The differentiating factor, argued at length in some institutions, pertaining to whether the student should take statistics or a foreign language, is a relatively unimportant consideration when weighed against more important matters, yet they still influence individual decisions on the type of doctorate sought.

Times and conditions change with regard to many problems and issues in graduate work. Through the turn of events the teacher educator of the United States no longer lives in an atmosphere of intellectual isolation, whatever may have been the case in the past. One aspect of this changing situation is the free flow of students and professors from one country to another, the world over. Despite translations of pertinent materials and scholars in other countries who write and speak English, educational interaction with other nations requires greater proficiency in foreign language. More American scholars have come to desire a reading or speaking knowledge of one or more foreign languages than a decade or so ago. Admittedly, current language requirements and methods of meeting them are quite unsatisfactory; they lead to superficiality, wounded pride, and unhappy attitudes. Since most doctorates have an area of specialization, perhaps proficiency should be required in the languages of the countries where such specialized thinking and research are most abundant. Sometimes this would be a single language; sometimes, more than one. Over and above degree requirements, every teacher and educator needs to raise with himself the question of his own responsibility with reference to intercultural communication. When these issues are settled, and when the degree fits the demands of the situation, it will not make too much difference which degree—Doctor of Philosophy or Doctor of Education—is actually awarded.

SELECTION AND EMPLOYMENT PRACTICES

It would be difficult to overstate the importance of the selection of teacher education personnel. No teacher training institution is better than its staff. College administrators are plagued by many major problems in this category.

First, some administrators set their sights too low. Because of inadequate salaries, too few good candidates, and frequently low standards of staff colleagues, they may develop a defeatist attitude toward the whole operation. Consequently, they find themselves doomed to a mediocre staff even from the beginning.

Second, many administrators lack the verbal facility, or insight, to indicate clearly the job potentialities or to dramatize the opportunities offered by the position under consideration, and accordingly cannot interest capable people in it.

Third, many administrators mistake likeability for competence. A teacher should be a good fellow, but not all good fellows are scholars or good teachers. Administrators need to be on guard particularly about mistaking compatibility for competence.

Fourth, many administrators just do not know the demands made by a particular teaching or technical assignment, and accordingly do not obtain qualified personnel for the varied assignments that make up a teacher education institution.

Fifth, positions, for which personnel are sought, are frequently poorly defined and thus the needed competencies are not known.

Sixth, many administrators lack valid criteria as a basis for the choice of personnel. The criteria need to be carefully specified. Catch-as-catch-can employment procedures are not enough.

Not all the blame for poor staff selection can be placed on the shoulders of administrators, of course. In situations where staff participation in the selection process is practiced, professors often favor weaker candidates. Unfortunately, they may recommend for appointment those whose weaknesses are similar to incumbents on the faculty. It requires a high level of professional maturity for either the administrator or a group of professors to deliberately recruit staff members with competence greater than their own.

SETTING UP THE MACHINERY FOR SELECTING A COMPETENT STAFF. The sort of machinery that is employed to select staff members will depend upon the administrative philosophy of the employing institution. The employment of educational personnel is an important matter for which systematic procedures should be established. Positions must be defined, the desired competencies indicated, and the sources from which applications are to be sought agreed upon. Ordinarily

the advice and assistance of many persons is sought. In some institutions the faculty plays an important role in matters relating to staff—in selection, in determining the conditions of employment, in making assignments, in developing salary policies, in setting up promotional procedures—and in all related matters. Technical advice must ordinarily be sought, either within or outside the institution. In any case, appointment of staff members should be made only after a most careful examination of all available data and information.

DEFINING THE POSITION. Many difficulties arise from ill-defined positions. Obviously, the requirements of a given position must be set forth in terms of an already existing or newly created position. Much of the ill-will within faculties can be traced to vagueness in assignments and overlapping responsibilities. It is not easy to resolve all of the conflicting interests that may arise in a faculty when a new position is created or even when an old one is filled. Weakness in the choice of personnel only leads to more trouble later on. When this weakness becomes the rule, faculty morale is almost certain to suffer.

Not only do the responsibilities associated with particular assignments need to be carefully defined, but also the professional rank and salary associated with a position need to be indicated. Again, poor faculty morale can result from apparently partial treatment to a newcomer or lack of consideration for individuals already on the staff. It is probably not too difficult to see why the newcomer receives the most favored treatment in many instances, but a mistake of judgment at this point may lead to no end of trouble later. Some institutions, realizing the importance of faculty assignments and morale, have created standing faculty committees to study personnel selection and assignments. New positions are created and new personnel added only after the desires and capabilities of the current staff are carefully reviewed. It is not always easy to convince an overly ambitious faculty member that there is anything in an institution that he cannot do, and do better than anyone else, but this situation must be met if staff building is to be successful. While some

administrators delight in deciding such matters by themselves, it is at this point that a strong, smoothly working faculty personnel committee can render valuable service.

STATING THE COMPETENCIES DESIRED. Stating competencies for staff positions has many ramifications. Almost everyone has ideas about such competencies; and, right or wrong, since faculty and administration must work together, these ideas must be considered. But from an objective point of view the stating of competencies is a technical matter. There may be important research and substantiated ideas in the literature that bear upon faculty assignments. Some of the assignments may be new ones, but most of them will have been in existence in many institutions for a very long time, and there is much known about them. If research is not available, descriptions of programs and experiences bearing upon a particular assignment certainly exist. The thesis maintained here is that many difficulties arise because of vague and unrealistic thinking by administrators and others about the competencies associated with various college teaching assignments. The difficulty may be not merely initial, but one that will continue over time. It may trouble not only the existing staff but the incoming staff member as well.

Differences of opinion, it must be recognized, are almost certain to arise in one form or another about the adequacy of the staff members' performance. These differences arise in part because of varying conceptions of what the position is. Some of the questions that should be asked and answered with reference to positions are: First, specifically what is the teaching assignment to be, if it is a teaching assignment? Second, are there many nonteaching duties required? Third, are faculty members expected to provide student guidance and counseling? Fourth, are there off-campus extension responsibilities? Fifth, are there state and community service responsibilities? Sixth, is the person selected expected to carry on research? Seventh, is membership expected in state, local, and national scholarly teacher associations, as well as attendance of meetings, and the presentation of papers? Eighth, is the staff member expected to write for publication?

When these questions are carefully answered at the beginning of employment, there are fewer chances for differences of opinion and friction later.

CONDITIONS FAVORABLE TO WORK

Many persons have spoken or written upon the importance of faculty morale; nonetheless it is not uncommon for institutions that follow carefully defined employment practices to leave the matter of working conditions pretty much to chance. It would seem very shortsighted to go to the trouble of getting good staff members and then make them unhappy and unproductive by allowing unfavorable working conditions to exist. Many of the seeds of unproductiveness, as has already been said, are sown in poor appointment practices—snap judgments about people, vaguely designated assignments, and poorly defined expectancies—but some come from unsatisfactory working conditions. The neglect which frequently follows employment, of course, is not deliberate, but many newcomers fail to receive the help they need from those who might give it, simply because associates are too busy or too complacent to assist. Accordingly many a newly appointed teacher educator finds himself quite unhappy with his situation and unable to achieve maximum efficiency.

WORKING CONDITIONS. One needs proper conditions essential to successful performance and a favorable physical environment in which to work. Much of the feeling for scholarly work is caught and not taught. This means, according to one's specialty, a warm and friendly place in which to work, and a situation in which one can share his work with students. What one hopes to see is a scholar teacher at work in an atmosphere conducive to his own productivity and that of his students. In this delineation one sees why only certain sorts of off-campus activities are compatible with scholarly teaching. Libraries and laboratories and a scholarly interest are essential to a high level intellectual activity. The traditions for the behavioral and physical sciences are different in these respects. Most laboratories are the property of the institution. Faculty members in the be-

behavioral sciences typically must provide their own private studies in their homes; more should be done to encourage on-campus libraries where students and faculty work together. This is not easy because tradition runs to the contrary and most faculty members, behavioral and physical sciences alike, have a very long day with family responsibilities, too. It is an institutional loss, however, when faculty members conduct their most productive activities in a home environment rather than one in which students may share.

STUDENTS TO TEACH. The sources upon which a faculty member is to draw for students are worthy of serious consideration. Professors, graduate and undergraduate alike, are supposed to attract students; this obligation has merits and weaknesses. Some professors worry much more than one might suspect about their lack of large numbers of students; some resort to doubtful means of attracting students. One way to make a professor happy and productive is to furnish him with a generous supply of good, hard-working students. The administration has a responsibility in this respect, regardless of tradition to the contrary. Courses, seminars, and workshops should provide the professor with a means of performing his leadership role.

A FRIENDLY ATTITUDE. Most persons need acceptance, approval, and encouragement by their peers and administrative superiors. This is probably truer for younger members of the faculty, but it is also true for older members and likely true for all members to some extent. This is one of the most important conditions necessary for quality performance, and one that costs no more than its giving. The standard excuse for poor working conditions is that there are no funds. The foundation for friendly support will be found in carefully considered assignments and mutually accepted goals. Attention from one's peers is difficult to secure, deeply engrossed as they are in their own concerns, but important. Nothing, however, could be more helpful than the good will and a good word, as well as a helping hand, from one's associates and the administration.

A STIMULATING INTELLECTUAL CLIMATE. Situations differ greatly in their stimulating qualities. It is not easy to carry on when no one seems to be concerned about quality performance or productivity. It is not easy to sit when everyone else is busy. The stagnation that characterizes some faculties arises from many causes: exasperation because of repeated failure to obtain needed funds, materials, and cooperation necessary to carry out effectively the activities that one is expected to perform; failure to understand, appreciate, or accept the conditions for sound scholarship; cynicism toward the educational adventure; and others. Such situations are difficult and need skilled handling to induce unreserved participation in what can be friendly and stimulating environment.

There is nothing more pathetic than a professor who speaks but to whom no one listens. Every one likes to be taken seriously and have something important to say.

A FEELING OF SECURITY. The sense of belonging and acceptance is the greatest of all the concerns of most college staff members. There are also other concerns. One is security of tenure. Much progress has been made in defining the conditions of employment, the rules for promotion, and fair practices associated with the profession. Another condition is that of reasonable pay. Much data are available on the salaries of faculty members of different ages, different amounts of training, different professional ranks, and for different types of institutions. Beyond these, as most employers know, every professor needs the security of a satisfying home environment. Out of conditions such as these one may expect quality performance from wisely chosen faculty members.

OPPORTUNITIES FOR GROWTH IN SERVICE. It is not enough to choose staff wisely and provide favorable working conditions for them. There must be opportunities for continued growth in service. New knowledge is being constantly added in all fields. Plans must be made for re-education and educational renewal. The loss from outmoded thinking, un-

terials, and processes is incalculable. Except for a professor's specialty, most of the things that one holds to be true are at best a decade or more out of date. Faculty members need planned assistance to keep up to date and to grow in service.

COMMITTEE ASSIGNMENTS FOR FACULTY MEMBERS. Within reason, faculty members need contact with their peers on a local, state, and national basis. They need contacts with their peers and the professional leaders of their own and other fields. Faculty participation in the formulation of educational policies is recognized as an acceptable administrative procedure. It is also a means by which staff members may keep mentally alert and abreast of the issues.

So important for the professor are these contacts with others that every administration may wisely spend considerable time in developing and securing important committee assignments for faculty members. This is frequently done as a means of institutional aggrandizement, but seldom as a planned procedure for continued faculty education. In pursuing this practice the administration and faculty alike should, however, be keenly aware of the law of diminishing returns in the field of committee service. A certain amount of this type of experience may be highly valuable, but too many committee assignments may stand in the way of the discharge of other more important activities for which faculty members have responsibility. It is generally accepted policy that faculty time should not be used to carry out administrative assignments, but it is equally accepted that faculty participation in policy making is a valuable activity for all concerned.

GETTING RESEARCH FUNDS FOR FACULTY MEMBERS. Research is usually considered from the point of view of its contribution to knowledge, but in many respects its greatest contribution is that made to growth in service of the staff member. It would be difficult to over-estimate the importance of research in this respect. As a training device it forces people to think more carefully than they might normally do about some aspect of their responsibility. Through research one learns to state problems precisely, define terms

objectively, formulate assumptions fully, pose hypotheses carefully, to validate gathering devices systematically, to explain investigational designs logically, pursue acceptable procedures in collecting, analyzing and summarizing data, and formulate conclusions carefully. The whole process involves mental operations closely akin to the best in critical scholarship. To carry these research values over to teaching, one must have first-hand contact with them. The research may be conducted in the library through the process of appraisal of the statements of others, or it may involve a new and direct appeal to experience made through the collection of data according to a carefully designed plan of research.

The administration should plan to keep all faculty members involved as much as possible in research activities, for the systematic study of problems—where the answers to questions may seem to be the primary goal in and of itself—and for the self-improvement value related to the study of their own operations. The administration has a definite responsibility for helping to plan and carry out research as a means of keeping an educationally alert faculty.

PLANNING FOR SYSTEMATIC STUDY. Every professor needs to go back to school from time to time, for many reasons, but particularly to renew contacts with new developments in his field of specialization, and to gain acquaintance with new fields. These new contacts with knowledge can be gained in many ways. First, they can be made possible through American and foreign scholarships and exchange professorships. Almost every scholar of any consequence has availed himself of the opportunity for further study with an eminent authority or at some great seat of learning. Second, there are also many exchange professorships now available and others that can be arranged. It is exceedingly helpful frequently to have an opportunity to associate with another staff in a different situation. Third, there is the sabbatical leave that can be used in many ways, such as travel, study, research, and writing. In large universities one need not leave the confines of one's own institution to find new opportunities to study and to extend one's grasp of vital

subject matter through the exploration of related disciplines. Whatever the situation, faculty members need opportunity to study.

SELF-IMPROVEMENT PROCEDURES

The plans under discussion above have been presented as administrative responsibilities, although their success will depend in no small degree upon faculty attitudes and cooperation. There are, however, other means best initiated by the individual faculty member. Three that have had very general use are (1) making use of the help of one's peers, (2) making use of student evaluations, and (3) a continuous self-survey of materials and processes.

THE HELP OF ONE'S PEERS. In the complex field of teacher education everyone needs some help. Most senior members of the staff are more than willing to confer with newcomers to the profession and with others as far as time permits. They can help in many ways: in developing points of view; in citing pertinent literature; in discussing the *pros* and *cons* of issues; in reading and editing manuscript; and in planning research. Guided by a sincere desire to know and to learn, one can gain much assistance from one's colleagues. Many college teachers live in varying states of isolation from their colleagues.

STUDENT EVALUATIONS. A movement with much vitality that has caught on rapidly the country over is that of student evaluation of classroom instruction. While not without very definite limitations, student evaluation when carefully prepared can provide helpful information and assistance. Getting useful information from students is a technical operation, however, and much more complex than most students and faculty realize. The inventories used for this purpose are frequently hastily prepared, ambiguous, and confusing. They need to be developed and calibrated with the same care as a carefully standardized test.

The danger in the student evaluation movement rests in its all too general acceptance as a cure-all. Its ready

availability will almost certainly lead to over-use and superficial acceptance. Where such evaluations are employed, they should be supplemented by other data to provide a rounded view of faculty needs and competence—and they certainly should be followed by after-graduation student evaluations. Sometimes student opinions shift when they gain a broader perspective. When the data-gathering devices employed in such evaluations are carefully constructed and are shown to be valid by accepted methods of validation much useful information about student reactions can be supplied faculty members.

CONTINUOUS SELF-SURVEY OF MATERIALS AND PROCESSES. Many opportunities are provided by day-to-day activities for self-study and improvement. Most staff activities presuppose planning, and an important aspect of each plan is the evaluation associated with it. A common discrepancy between theory and practice will be found in the failure of responsible faculty members to include evaluation as a vital part of their own operations. It is only natural that professional people will and should believe in themselves and some will have so much confidence in their own performance that they fail to make adequate plans for its evaluation. There is plenty of evidence, however, that most plans, for one reason or another never live up to expectations. All theories and procedures, however promising, need careful checking by the very best devices, for self-improvement requires systematic evaluation.

Where there are two or more sections of large classes, for example, self-evaluation can be done in many ways. Even with a single instructor, but particularly when there are two or more instructors, there will be opportunities for evaluation of the more systematic types, including the experimental study of materials, processes, and conditions for effective classroom instruction. Then, too, follow-up study of appraisals by former students after employment can be particularly helpful. One of the best types of evaluation of classroom instruction that may be used is the follow-up

study of the product; correlations between success on the job and course grades, test scores, and other pregraduate factors; weaknesses and difficulties experienced on the job in relation to course content; and the attitudes of students relative to various phases of classroom instruction after graduation and after they have had on-the-job experience. These follow-up studies can do much toward maintaining an intellectually alert instructional staff.

BUILDING THE TEAM

It takes many different types of persons with different interests, kinds of intelligence, training, and background of experience to constitute a good team of teacher educators. There is too much homogeneity in the staffs of most teacher education institutions. This arises in many ways: (1) There is the cultural leveling to whose forces everyone is subjected. (2) Other types of sameness are achieved by the common agreement reached in professional meetings, year books, publications, and committee actions. (3) Some institutions permit too much inbreeding through the continual employment of their own graduates or those of a very closely related institution. (4) Some administrators have a stereotype to which all appointees must conform. Modern society is too complex to be represented by a single stereotype. A faculty team is more like a baseball team with pitchers, catchers, infielders and outfielders. The best approach is to have some of each. The common bond between them will be scholarly teaching, research, and service.

The faculty team requires common effort. This means that various members will share in the making of policies that shape the destiny of the total group. Joint responsibility of administrators and faculty members will involve faculty committees in the definition of staff positions, selection of new associates, assignment of functions, as well as the continuing professional development of all members of the team. The standards endorsed must make provision for differences in interests, capacities, contributions, points of view. Maximum freedom for individual professional de-

velopment and service must prevail; the persistent search for truth and knowledge and the refinement of theory must ever be the goal of all.

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CHAPTER 20

All-Institution Approach

The controversy about teacher education which has developed during this century, and attracted nationwide interest since World War II, comes to focus ultimately upon the matter of who controls and determines the nature and quality of the education of teachers. The intense concern over this issue develops from a new awareness of the vital role of education in an age of intelligence. In a fundamental sense, the preservation of national ideals and individual freedom, as well as the maintainance of continued progress in all fields, depends upon the quality of teachers prepared for schools.

WIDESPREAD CONCERN FOR TEACHER EDUCATION

Citizens who more or less had taken schools for granted; many college professors and administrators who had only tolerated, often with resentment, the struggle for institutional survival of programs of teacher education; scientists and professional people who were so busy with their own specialties that they paid little attention to the quality of public education provided; politicians who have fought efforts to improve standards for teacher education—all are now suddenly volunteering to lead teacher education out of the wilderness into the promised land of higher standards and respectability. Professors of education, officials of state

departments of education, school administrators, and school board members who have long struggled against overwhelming odds to improve the quality of teachers are being sentenced in the public courts of ridicule and scorn for having achieved only partial success.

As is typical of the American people when we cast about for a scapegoat to assuage our damaged pride and international reputations, wisdom and objectivity are being set aside by many in favor of rabble-rousing techniques. One reactionary group has called for the obliteration of schools and departments of education so that the teacher education may be turned over to selected liberal arts professors.¹ A national foundation, which receives its support from the federal government, has by-passed The United States Office of Education, departments of public instruction, and Schools of Education to establish special college courses for teachers.² One well-known philanthropic organization has spent millions of dollars attempting to encourage the acceptance of particular patterns of professional education for teachers.³ Various individuals have published, in books or popular periodicals, their own castigations of programs of teacher education and of professors of education.⁴

The intemperate charges and countercharges about teacher education tend to cover the quiet but determined efforts in many colleges and universities to achieve a cooperative, all-institution approach to teacher education.⁵ Such developments, even though they have the support of professors from various fields, and of several important national professional organizations, do not attract the headlines. Nor

¹ Robert A. Sklar, "Neo Conservatives Are on the March with 'Sound Education' as Battle Cry," *The Nation's Schools*, 39 (May, 1957), pp. 54-56.

² H. C. Kelly, "NSF Summer Institutes for Teacher of Mathematics and Science," *Science*, 121 (March 25, 1955), p. 414.

³ N. H. Henry, "Announcements of Interest to Educators—Editorial and News," *Elementary School Journal*, 54 (December, 1953), pp. 193-96.

⁴ Arthur E. Bestor, "On the Education and Certification of Teachers," *School and Society*, 78 (September 19, 1953), pp. 81-86.

⁵ G. F. Giesecke and M. S. Wallace, "Study of Teacher Education at Texas Technological College," *Journal of Teacher Education*, 7 (December, 1956), pp. 332-38.

do they enlist the participation of the nationally renowned, professed "saviors" of teacher education from the alleged pedagogical "devils." They do, however, represent the most promising approach to improving the quality of teacher education of our time.

TEACHER EDUCATION—AN ALL-INSTITUTIONAL RESPONSIBILITY

The education of teachers is too important to the nation to be left to the sole jurisdiction of any single group—whether it be composed of professors of education whose central concern has always been devoted to teacher education, or of liberal arts professors who recently have begun to recognize a long-ignored obligation to help make the policy for teacher education. Teacher education is properly the responsibility of the entire institution.⁶

The fact that policy-making and control of programs of teacher education have been delegated largely to departments of education is due as much to lack of interest by subject-matter specialists as to empire building aspirations of professors of education. It is true, nevertheless, that patterns of institutional organizations and negative attitudes toward teacher education have, in some institutions, delivered into the hands of professors of education more responsibility for teacher education than they can or should assume. The question of whether the professor of education usurped the control of programs of teacher education or had such power thrust upon him can be argued. Such debate, however, serves little purpose. More important are the reasons why teacher education must now, at long last, become truly a responsibility of the entire institution.

QUALITY OF TEACHER EDUCATION AND PRESTIGE. The day is past when programs of teacher education could be quietly relegated to the confines of an obscure school or department of education, or divided, camouflaged, and distributed

⁶ Lindley J. Stiles, "Teacher Education An All University Function," *School and Society*, 62 (October 6, 1915), pp. 220-22

among various departments of the liberal arts college, with the hope that the public would not be too much aware that the institution was engaged in teacher education. Teacher education is of such importance today that it receives front-page treatment. The public demands to know which institutions prepare teachers and how good a job each is doing. Any judgment leveled at the quality of programs of teacher education reflects on the entire institution. Out of self-protection, if for no other reason, institutions must take steps to provide the type of organization and control that will guarantee maximum faculty cooperation to develop and maintain high-quality programs of teacher education.

PARTICIPATION BY ACADEMIC DEPARTMENTS. Academic departments in colleges and universities have always maintained at least passive participation in programs of teacher education. They have offered courses both for the liberal education and subject specialization of teachers. Individual professors of subject fields have often been genuinely interested in helping prepare good teachers. Some have sought to help with the in-service programs of teacher education. In practically all colleges and universities the advice of academic departments has been sought by schools of education on policies and programs for the education of teachers.

In most institutions, however, academic departments have not been accorded an official role in determining policies and in planning programs for teacher education. Though their advice was sought, and no doubt respected, they were not members of the school faculty which carried on the grass roots task of initiating policies and programs of teacher education. True, as members of the general university faculty, professors of academic fields could exercise their right of franchise regarding curriculum proposals and degree programs recommended by the department, school, or college of education. But all too often at this level of the institution's machinery, questions about matters under consideration receive only cursory consideration. The tradition prevails, also, for general faculties to place heavy dependence upon the recommendations of schools and colleges. This

being true, professors of academic fields have often felt that they could influence the program of teacher education only indirectly. As a consequence, the active participation of many was not properly encouraged.⁷

At the same time, academic departments have offered most of the work included in curriculums for teachers. The unfairness of being assigned a passive role in teacher education, that of consultant without a vote, could only promote protest and resentment against the departments of education which were in control.

INSTITUTIONAL POLICY AND TEACHER EDUCATION. The policy an institution maintains regarding the control, support, and encouragement of teacher education reflects its conception of the importance of this function. An institution which feels little responsibility for improving the quality of elementary and secondary schools may see no reason to trouble the whole faculty about problems of teacher education. It is not surprising that such institutions give second-rate status to the school of education and to the preparation of teachers. On the other hand, institutions which maintain a broader conception of the importance of education to the nation, the interlocking responsibilities of schools at all levels, and the educational leadership and research functions of colleges and universities, will marshal the total resources of the university to strengthen the education of teachers and to serve schools.

Making teacher education the responsibility of the total institution will involve drastic changes in policy in many colleges and universities. Efforts to enlist academic departments in active participation in the formulation of policies and programs of teacher education will likely meet with vigorous resistance. Schools of education may be reluctant to share authority with colleagues in academic departments. This reluctance will be motivated by such factors as a well-

⁷Haril R. Douglass, "The Education of Teachers as an All Institution Responsibility as Planned at the University of North Carolina," *Southern Association Quarterly*, 2 (August, 1938), p. 5.

founded distrust of the willingness of professors of subject-matter fields to look objectively at the total program of elementary and secondary education; resentments toward the second-rate citizenship that many academic departments have helped mold for professors of education; recent unfair statements of self-appointed spokesmen for the liberal arts condemning professors of education for all the weaknesses in our schools; and the desire to protect what are considered to be genuine gains in programs of teacher education.

Other professional schools may find in the attempts to develop an institution-wide approach to teacher education challenges to their own patterns of organization. They may become ready allies for schools of education which desire to maintain the status quo of separate professional faculties for professional schools. Such schools, too, have experienced the superior attitudes of some liberal arts professors and are conditioned to suspect movements to establish institutional policies that provide for shared control of programs.

Regardless of the obstacles to be faced, the problem is to establish institutional policies of organization which will guarantee the preparation of high-quality teachers. This objective will need to be kept clearly in focus if faculty members in all departments and schools are to rise above vested interests to make statesmanlike decisions for teacher education.

INSTITUTIONAL SUPPORT FOR PROGRAM OF TEACHER EDUCATION. A major purpose for establishing teacher education as a function of the total institution is to develop an awareness of the need for adequate financial support. In comparison with support provided other professional fields, teacher education has been impoverished in practically all institutions. This is true in spite of the fact that the education of teachers is often a bread-and-butter program for enrollments.

Schools of education have had inadequate laboratory facilities, insufficient resources for research and experimentation, and inferior services activities for schools. Unless the total university community can become conscious of the

urgency of increasing the financial support for teacher education, it will continue to be difficult, if not impossible, to provide the professional conditions necessary for high-quality programs of teacher education.

ENTIRE FACULTY AND POLICY MAKING FOR TEACHER EDUCATION

The key to achieving the all-institution approach to teacher education is involving the total faculty in policy making. Several types of internal organization for teacher education have been developed to achieve this objective.

They range from arrangements which provide automatically for shared control by all professors who contribute to the preparation of teachers to arrangements which encourage only informal and voluntary consultation between professors of education and members of subject-matter departments. Although the latter type predominates at the present time, a number of examples are to be found of patterns of organization which are designed to extend faculty participation in policy making for teacher education to the entire institution. A brief description of a few of these programs may provide suggestions to institutions seeking to move in this direction.

THE WISCONSIN PLAN.⁸ The most outstanding type of organization to involve the total faculty in policy making for teacher education was developed at the University of Wisconsin when its professional School of Education was organized in 1930. This plan provides for the general faculty of the School of Education to be analogous in organization to the pattern usually maintained for graduate schools. The specific legislation⁹ prescribes that:

The faculty of the School of Education shall consist of members of the Department of Education and of certain other departments budgeted in Education (i.e., Physical Education-Men, Physical Education-Women, Art and Art Education, and the Wisconsin High School) and,

⁸ Also found in Temple University.

⁹ Laws and Regulations Governing the University of Wisconsin, September, 1951 chap. v, pp. 23

in addition, on the analogy of the Graduate School, of those members of departments of the other undergraduate colleges and schools who offer courses of junior or senior grade for teaching majors or other courses of content type required in the School of Education.

In operation, this means that the School of Education faculty consists of almost 600 professors and administrators distributed among the divisions of the university, as shown in Table 24.

TABLE 24
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN
SCHOOL OF EDUCATION—FACULTY
(1957-58)

<u>Division of University</u>	<u>Total Members</u>
General administration	10
Graduate school	3
Letters and science	282
Engineering	3
Agriculture	119
Home economics	30
Education	76
Commerce	26
Pharmacy	3
Law	1
Medicine	9
Extension division	17
Athletics	4
Student union	2
Total	<u>593</u>

All these staff individuals are full fledged members of the School of Education faculty. They are eligible to attend faculty meetings, have all the rights of franchise, serve on School of Education committees, and are responsible both directly and through their departmental structure to the Faculty and Dean of the School of Education for matters pertaining to teacher education. The departments in which they serve, regardless of the colleges and school in which they are budgeted, function as departments in the School of Education for teacher education purposes.

To illustrate more clearly the organizational structure of the School of Education a chart is presented in Figure 3. In its broadest framework teacher education at the University of Wisconsin is conceived as consisting of (1) the liberal education essential to lay a foundation for scholarship and moral and ethical citizenship; (2) specialization in the subject field or fields in which the student is preparing to teach; and (3) professional orientation to teaching. For leadership in formulating policies and programs for liberal education purposes, the faculty looks to those departments which give prior attention to the basic lower division courses in liberal arts provided for all college students. Subject-matter departments assume responsibility for proposing major and minor programs of specialization for teachers. Likewise, the Department of Education gives leadership to the professional sequence provided for teachers.

School of Education program committees, composed of faculty members representing the various departments and schools of the entire University, include the following:

Secondary education
Elementary education
Recreation

Health education
Occupational therapy

These committees have responsibility for studying the over-all program of teacher education in the areas concerned, for evaluating the effectiveness of the work, and for making policy recommendations to the School of Education faculty.

The Executive Committee of the School of Education, which gives close assistance to the deans in the implementation of policies approved by the faculty, consists of the chairmen of the six departments budgeted in the School of Education and nine representatives from other colleges and schools distributed as follows: Letters and Science, 5; Medicine, 1; Agriculture, 1; Home Economics, 1; Commerce, 1. Representatives are appointed for three-year terms by the Dean of the School of Education in consultation with other deans and with chairmen of departments. An effort is made

to rotate the representation among the departments involved in teacher education.

DIVISION OF TEACHER EDUCATION. Another type of faculty organization to achieve representation of all professors who help prepare teachers is a Division of Teacher Education. Under this pattern faculty members in various departments which contribute to the program of teacher education are members also of the Division which must approve policies and programs for teacher education. Within the Division, departments take responsibility for appropriate aspects of the program to prepare teachers. Next to the Wisconsin Plan of Faculty organization, the divisional pattern provides for the widest representation of faculty members from the entire university in the formulation of policies for teacher education.

ALL-INSTITUTION COUNCIL ON TEACHER EDUCATION. A less comprehensive type of organization to achieve representation of the total institution in policy formulation for teacher education is the Council on Teacher Education. This type of body, which exists at the University of Illinois, the University of Texas, and Carleton College, and elsewhere, typically draws its membership from all departments and colleges within the institution. It makes recommendations relative to policy and programs for teacher education, evaluates the quality of teacher education and in some institutions gives general supervision to interdepartmental or interschool programs of teacher education.

The Council on Teacher Education draws upon the faculty resources of academic departments for leadership in the teacher education program. Academic departments share the control of teacher education, since each, like the Department of Education, is represented. Theoretically, at least, academic professors are provided an official channel through their representative on the Council to influence policy and programs for teacher education.

AUGMENTATION OF SCHOOL OF EDUCATION FACULTY WITH SELECTED REPRESENTATIVES FROM OTHER SCHOOLS AND COL-

LEGES. The University of California, the University of Colorado, and the University of Minnesota are examples of institutions which have moved toward the all-institution participation in policy making for teacher education by augmenting the faculty of the school of education with selected representatives from other divisions of the University. Although the majority control of programs of teacher education remains with professors of education under this arrangement, key professors are appointed to represent other schools and departments as full-fledged members of the faculty of the school of education. They are able, therefore, to represent their groups in deliberations concerning the program of teacher education and provide a ready avenue of communication between the department of education and other departments which share in the program of preparing teachers.

DUAL PROFESSORS. A number of institutions have established dual professorships between the department of education and subject-matter departments.¹⁰ The dual professor holds rank in both departments, is usually budgeted in proportion to the time devoted to the activities of each, and is entitled to all the rights of dual participation. The dual professor is a person well qualified to meet the standards for faculty membership in both the subject-matter fields and in pedagogy. He is usually in charge of teaching subject-matter methods and supervising student teaching for prospective teachers majoring in his academic specialty. Such positions may exist, also, in institutions which have the Wisconsin type of organization or the all-institution council on teacher education.

The dual professor is expected to play a liaison role between the department of education and the subject-matter department. His responsibility is to keep each informed on the views of the other and to give leadership in helping to achieve a fusion of the efforts of both. His existence makes

¹⁰ Syracuse University perhaps pioneered this plan.

it possible for academic departments to make known through their representative on the faculty of the department of education their attitudes, judgments, and suggestions regarding the program of teacher education.

The establishment of dual professorships is a step toward promoting a wider interest in and contribution to teacher education. In itself this type of arrangement does not answer the criticisms of professors in subject-matter departments that the professors of education are in complete control of policy for teacher education.

ADVISORY COUNCIL ON TEACHER EDUCATION. The Advisory Council on Teacher Education with institution-wide representation has been established in a number of major universities and smaller colleges. Membership on the Council is typically appointed by the dean of the school of education on the advice of deans of other colleges. Its function is to keep the faculty of the school of education in touch with the attitudes and views of other schools and colleges which contribute to the preparation of teachers and to advise on policy decisions relative to teacher education. The faculty of the school of education retains, however, responsibility for formulating policies and recommending them to the general faculty of the institution. Both Michigan State University and the University of Michigan are examples of institutions which have developed and used Advisory Councils.

INFORMAL COOPERATION OF PROFESSORS OF ACADEMIC SUBJECTS WITH SCHOOL OF EDUCATION. Most schools of education which have not established dual professors, all-university Councils on Teacher Education, official Advisory Councils, Divisions of Teacher Education, or the Wisconsin plan of faculty organization, endeavor to obtain advice from professors in subject fields concerning policies and programs for teacher education. In some institutions the cooperation is so effective that a high level of mutual respect prevails. When it does, the academic departments feel related to the program of teacher education and, although they do not have

a chance legally to influence policies until they reach the university faculty level, they feel that their views generally receive a hearing.

This type of cooperation often is implemented by inter-department advisory committees, by including academic professors as advisors on *ad hoc* committees of the school of education, which are concerned with problems that are of interest to their departments. In smaller institutions, particularly where neither the academic department nor the department of education faculties are large, much strength has been gained for the program of teacher education through such cooperation.

COOPERATION BY TOTAL FACULTY. Procedures which involve the total faculty in the program for teacher education relate to policy making, curriculum development, recruitment, admission, advising of students, research experimentation, and services to schools.

Policy making. Policies determine standards for admission to preparation, length, and character of the program of studies, graduation standards, and recommendations for certification. Participation in policy making gives various departments and individual professors direct responsibility for the nature and quality of the program of teacher education. It offers an opportunity for differences in philosophy and objectives among faculty members from various parts of the institution to be examined and perhaps reconciled before policy becomes established. The total strength of an institution can be directed toward developing quality programs for teacher education only if all contribute to the preparation of teachers—in providing liberal studies and subject-matter specialization as well as pedagogical preparation—and share actively in the making of policies.

Curriculum development. The curriculums for prospective teachers are made up of courses provided by many departments, in different schools and colleges. Curriculum development can be improved only if active cooperation from the interested departments involved is achieved. This goal is more easily attained if departments are given re-

sponsibility for appraising the contributions of their own offerings to the objectives of the teacher education program and are also responsible for assisting in shaping the total curriculum.

Recruitment, selection, and advisement. Programs of recruitment, selection, and advising of students need the strength that comes from the active participation of professors of the basic foundation courses in liberal arts and the academic subject fields. The choice of teaching often results from the student's interest in a particular subject. It may result from his admiration of a particular teacher. It is important that plans for recruitment, selection, and advisement provide for close and continuing relationships between the student and professor in the major and minor fields.

The practice of requiring students to sever official advisory relationships with professors in subject fields when they enroll in the school of education is difficult to defend. It is often resented by both the subject-field advisor and the student. To attempt to justify this practice on the grounds that professors of education know the total program better, are more interested in advisees, or are better trained for counseling, only reflects the lack of involvement of the total faculty in advisement.

Until professors of subject fields take active leadership in recruiting students for teaching in their fields, and unless all professors take responsibility for holding before good students the opportunities and satisfactions offered by teaching, there will be little hope of counteracting the shortage of teachers. Interest of professors is needed in all subject areas, but it is particularly essential in those fields such as science, foreign language, home economics, and art, where the greatest shortages of teachers prevail. Unless subject-matter professors and others throughout the institutions are actively identified with, and responsible for, programs of teacher education, they will not feel it their duty to help recruit good students for teaching.

Research and experimentation. The greatest need in teacher education today—as it has always been—is for basic

research and controlled experimentation to validate theory and to test educational practice. Teacher education programs are largely the product of tradition and faculty compromise. Though the merits of various plans have been widely discussed, systematic efforts to evaluate their effectiveness have been rare. The research that has been undertaken is often unjustly ridiculed because it has not enjoyed widespread understanding and interpretation by faculty members outside departments of education.

Research and experimentation, to be most fruitful, should enlist the support of the total faculty. Such participation will improve the identification of hypotheses to be tested, research design and cooperation to facilitate the study. It will also help to promote greater respect toward and acceptance of the validated results achieved.

Services to schools. Efforts of professors of education to be "jacks of all trades" have been noble, devoted and frequently carried out on an over-time basis. They have often been most effective. Programs of continuing professional development for teachers in service as well as other services to schools will be strengthened, however, if they have the benefit of contributions from professors throughout the entire institution.

Professors of subject fields can provide consultation services to subject teachers, assist with curriculum revision projects, teach extension courses in their fields, and those with particular competences can help with such matters as taxation, budget and school building problems.

ROLES OF SCHOOLS AND DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION

If the total faculty is to share responsibility for teacher education, what then should be the respective roles of the school and department of education? The answer to this question must be clear and acceptable to professors of education in order to enlist their support for an all-institution approach to teacher education. The roles must be understood also by others in the university or college community if both the school and department of education are to be

assigned appropriate responsibilities and accorded positions of prestige within the broader institution-wide organization for teacher education.

Under the Wisconsin-type plan of organization, the school of education functions as the over-all administrative organization for all undergraduate aspects of the program of teacher education. Its faculty, composed of all professors who contribute to the program, has jurisdiction for everything related to the preparation of prospective teachers for elementary and secondary schools. In this type of organization, the department of education offers education courses and provides a departmental home for all professors whose primary concern and responsibility is for the study of education as a field that comprises the pedagogical aspects of teacher education. The school of education is composed of many departments located in various schools and colleges, of which one is the department of education. Most of the departments are included in the budget of other colleges and have responsibilities to their parent colleges for preparing nonteachers and to the graduate school for offering graduate programs in their subject fields. Some departments, such as art education, physical education, and the laboratory school, because of their primary responsibility to teacher education, are budgeted in the school of education. In a number of instances, however, they have responsibilities to other schools for offering work to students not preparing for teaching.

Colleges and universities which depend upon councils for teacher education to promote the all-institution approach to teacher education normally assign the function of coordinating contributions of policy to this body. Administration of the program is usually lodged in the several schools or colleges. The school of education, however, assumes general responsibility for working out relationships between those contributing courses and services.

The dual-professor type of organization tends to place final decisions for formulation of policies and programs in the hands of professors of education.

In smaller institutions, there may be no separate depart-

ment of education. The school of education, even though it functions as a separate professional school, in reality may be just a large department. In such cases the functions and responsibilities that are usually delegated to departments of education in larger institutions are assumed by the school.

ROLE OF THE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION. The school of education holds a position within a university-type organization comparable to that of other professional schools. It coordinates the professional preparation of teachers and offers courses of an applied nature. Being a school, it does not offer the basic work for general educational purposes provided by the core college of liberal arts and sciences. Nor does it provide directly, except in certain applied fields, work for the subject specialization of teachers. Its major function is to serve as an agent, a type of a holding company, for bringing the total resources of the institution to bear upon the program of education for teachers. It should endeavor to unite the strengths of all divisions of the college or university to improve the education of teachers, to promote the systematic study of education as a process, and to help strengthen schools at all levels.

Coordinator of policy for teacher education. The school of education should coordinate the contributions of various departments—both academic and pedagogical—with the program of teacher education. It provides the administrative structure for enlisting the interest and participation of all professors who contribute to the preparation of teachers. In relationship to this function, the school of education should solicit the viewpoint of all as a base for the scope of policies and serve as a mediator for the practical application of policy suggestions.

The function of coordinating contributions to policy for teacher education will be facilitated by the following principles:

1. The entire college or university is responsible for the quality of teacher education program maintained; therefore, wide participation in policy-making should be provided for and encouraged.

2. All departments which will be affected by policies for teacher education should participate in their formulation.
3. Departments should be looked to for leadership in the development of policy related to the unique contribution of each to the institution's programs of teacher education.
4. Differences in viewpoint should be thoroughly studied to find common ground for policy.
5. Care should be exercised to avoid excluding any interested professor in the institution from helping to shape policies in teacher education.
6. The objective of policies should be to develop a program of teacher education characterized by balanced strength in liberal education, specialization in subject fields and competence in teaching.
7. Criticisms of teacher education policy should be appraised by the total faculty to ascertain their validity.
8. A continuous program of effective evaluation of the program of teacher education should test the validity of adopted policy.

Institutional agent of administration for policy and programs. The school of education serves the institution and faculty as an agent for translating adopted policy into educational programs. In performing this function it, like the graduate school, must negotiate with other colleges and schools, particularly the liberal arts college, which participate in the preparation of teachers.

Certain administrative responsibilities fall directly upon the school of education. It must select and admit students; provide guidance services; take responsibility for the administration of various curricula which are provided for prospective teachers; provide laboratory facilities for the observation, participation, and practice of prospective teachers; certify students for graduation, recommend students for certification as teachers; and provide placement services.

With other divisions of the institution the school of education seeks to establish standards of scholarship, adequate resources and facilities for learning, and procedures for evaluating the impact of the total program upon students. It cooperates with the graduate school to encourage research

related to educational problems and helps to coordinate the pre-service program of teacher education with graduate and in-service programs for teachers.

Coordinator of services with schools and the profession. The school of education also assumes a role of leadership and contact with members of the teaching profession. It serves as a vehicle on which the total resources of the entire institution can be made available to elementary and secondary schools as well as to colleges.

Home for departments of teacher education. The school of education functions as the home for those departments which give primary attention to teacher education. These may include, depending upon the organization of the other schools and colleges, the department of education in which courses in theory and practice of teaching are lodged, departments of art education, music education, physical education, industrial arts education, agricultural education, home economics education, special education and business education. The department of education may be subdivided into segments of elementary and secondary education, or the educational foundation fields, school administration and the like. In addition, the school of education often directly administers the laboratory school, the teacher placement bureau, the bureau of educational research, the program of school services, and special laboratories such as guidance clinics, psychological, diagnostic and reading clinics.

For such departments, bureaus and clinics which are assigned to the school of education, their budgets, facilities, supplies and equipment as well as faculty personnel policies are administered directly by the school of education.

Clearing house role. The school of education serves as a clearing house for information, materials, relationships between the institution and elementary and secondary schools, cooperation on educational research, extension and consultation services to schools, and contact with state and national organizations for teacher education. It may also promote scholarship assistance for students preparing for teaching

and coordinate programs of recruitment and counseling of prospective teachers.

Maintenance of special resources such as curriculum and film libraries for prospective teachers and those in service is another means by which the school of education promotes the teacher education efforts of an institution. It may also provide services to foreign students who come to study American schools. Typically, the school of education is the repository of information about schools, educational programs and practices, and agencies that serve schools. As such, it seeks to help the entire faculty keep informed on the important function of education at all levels.

The conscience of quality teaching on the college level. Through the school of education, faculty members not only find an avenue for expressing their interest in teacher education, but they also have a chance to keep the conscience of the institution sensitive to the importance of teaching. Interest in providing high-quality programs of teacher education is closely related to concern for quality in teaching on the college level. The school of education may function as an agent to coordinate the efforts of faculty members to strengthen their own teaching and to appraise the impact of college programs upon students.

This is a role of the school of education which has irritated professors in subject fields in institutions where they did not enjoy full membership in the faculty of the school. Such irritation is understandable, particularly when they were aware that professors of education did not always set an outstanding example of teaching themselves. When both professors of education and of subject fields join together to improve the quality of instruction in the institutions, the chances of such antagonisms developing are greatly reduced.

ROLE OF THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION. Within a comprehensive organization for the school of education, the department of education assumes the role of one of many departments which contribute to the preparation of teachers. Typically, it provides a departmental home for those pro-

fessors who have specialized in the theory and practice of teaching and the study of the function and applications of education. Because it typically functions also as a department of the graduate school, the department of education includes graduate professors of the foundation fields, administration, and the various areas of professional specialization. Its specific contributions to the program of teacher education might include those described below.

Interpreter for technical or esoteric theory. The department of education should include on its faculty professors whose primary concern is the study and interpretation of the technical or esoteric theory related to the learning process, human development, teaching, and the place of the school in the cultural setting. Such scholars will have training in the primary fields of knowledge which are basic to the areas of application. They should concentrate on both basic and applied research in the fields of their interest and competence.

The learning process. Research and instruction in this area in departments of education deal with human learning. The contribution made to the education of teachers is the development of knowledge about how learning takes place most efficiently and with maximum permanency. Appropriate problems for study include: (1) theories of learning, (2) motivation, (3) transfer, (4) retention, (5) outcomes, (6) inhibition to learning, (7) types of learning, and (8) physiological bases of learning.

Human development. The intellectual, physiological, emotional, and social development of human beings from childhood through adolescence usually comprise the dimensions of study and instruction in this area. As distinguished from the learning process which treats the phenomena of learning, the intellectual development relates to the changes that take place in such factors as readiness, capacity, interest, intensity, and integration of learning as growth occurs. Consideration of physiological, emotional and social factors in human maturation is important to the role of these traits in relation to educability and adjustment.

The contribution of knowledge of human development to the education of teachers is substantiated by numerous studies which show a positive relationship between the teacher's understanding of human development and his teaching competence. This knowledge helps the teacher to make sound judgments regarding the selection, adaptation, and the organization of subject matter for particular age groups, as well as the choice of instructional procedures, and the appraisal of achievement.

The teaching process. This is perhaps the oldest area of study in the field of pedagogy. Throughout the ages man has sought to discover effective techniques for imparting knowledge, skills, ideals, attitudes, and understanding to others. Scholarship and instruction of prospective teachers in the teaching process involves the study of the effectiveness of general patterns of teaching, instructional aids, teaching procedures, and measurement of outcomes. Consideration is given to the methods of teaching most appropriate to the various subject fields and to the relationship of teaching procedures to the results obtained.¹¹

The place of the school in the cultural setting. The philosophical, historical, sociological interpretations of the role of the school in relation to the culture it serves comprise the basis of this area. The applications of theory and established knowledge in their fields, along with those in the area of the psychology of learning, have historically constituted the foundations of the pedagogical aspects of teacher education. They represent the primary sources for determining the purposes and functions of the school.

Scholarship and instruction in these fields shape a teacher's understanding of the mission of the school in a democratic society and supply insights into the contribution of different subjects to the objectives of education. These

¹¹ Ralph H. Ojemann and Frances R. Wilkinson, "The Effect on Pupil Growth of an Increase in Teachers' Understanding of Pupil Behavior," *Educational Psychology—A Book of Readings*, Arthur P. Coladarci, ed. (New York: The Dryden Press, 1955), pp. 216-25.

fields furnish also the basic background for scholarship in all phases of pedagogy.

Provision of professionalization for teachers. The department of education offers the courses in education that are included in the pre-service programs of preparation of teachers. As faculties of education departments are relieved of the burden of taking complete responsibility for the formulation of policies and programs for teacher education under the all-institution approach to teacher education, they have more time and energy to concentrate upon the refinement of knowledge, testing of theory and the selection and organization of educational course content. As they do this, and as they reach agreements with other professors of education throughout the country regarding the courses and content that appropriately should be included in the undergraduate professional education sequence, it can be predicted that the criticisms of such work as it has been offered will no longer be valid.

Departments of education also offer education courses at the graduate level. As the master's degree becomes a program designed to complete the teacher's preparation for teaching rather than to prepare for administration or supervision, it will possibly include more work in subject fields and less in education courses. With the reduction in numbers enrolled in education courses at the master's degree level, education departments, in major institutions at least, will have released more resources for offering the post-master's degree work required for those who are specializing in such areas as administration, supervision, education of the handicapped, personnel work and teacher education.

Research. The dearth of educational research has resulted in part from the heavy loads professors of education have had to carry in the teaching of undergraduate and graduate courses in education. Failure to press forward research efforts to improve insights, generalizations and knowledge about the educative process has retarded the development of quality programs of pedagogical study. De-

partments of education should take the lead in promoting research in their particular fields of responsibility and co-operate with other professors on the study of problems faced by teachers and their school systems.

Dedication to this objective will necessitate a change of faculty personnel policies in many institutions. It will also influence advanced graduate programs that prepare future professors of education. The practice of employing professors of education who have inadequate preparation for and little interest in research has loaded many faculties of departments of education with professors who make limited contributions to scholarship in their fields of teaching. While they are fresh from their programs of doctoral study, they may be interesting and stimulating teachers. When a few years have elapsed beyond their systematic scholarship, they are likely to degenerate into less capable professors.

If essential basic educational research is to go forward, departments need to give a high priority to scholarship and research competence when they select new staff members. When they do, it will follow that institutions which prepare professors of education will place a greater emphasis on research training.

Service to schools. Services to schools make demands upon departments of education. These usually include the teaching of extension courses, assistance with school surveys and field research projects, participation in the activities of professional groups, helping teachers find suitable positions as well as helping schools to find teachers, and consultation with teachers and school officials. The all-institution approach to teacher education should involve professors from other departments to provide services for schools. Nevertheless, members of the department of education will, no doubt, continue to be the major source of contact and assistance to schools in the institution.

With the growth of services of state departments of public instruction, many state universities and colleges are finding that they can turn services such as accreditation, collection

of information about the status of school populations and programs, leadership for school reorganization and curricular improvement, to state department personnel. Professors of education will cooperate with the state department to provide the assistance they are uniquely able to give. The trend is for departments of education to confine their services to those which grow directly out of their research and instructional programs and which demand the particular professional abilities that individual professors possess.

Consultation on teaching procedures, curriculum, evaluation within the institution. To the extent that professors of education develop their own scholarship and competence in their fields, they will be called upon for advice and assistance with professional problems by professors from other departments within the institution. Professors of subject fields who are serious about their own teaching readily seek help from professors of education whose intellectual and scholarly qualities they respect. They are also quick to recognize superficiality and incompetence.

As professors of education expand their own knowledge of the educational process through research, as they strengthen their own courses with sound content, as they prove their own ability to challenge the intellectual curiosity of their students, they find their colleagues from other departments coming to them to exchange ideas about teaching, curriculum organization, and evaluation at the college level. Such exchanges represent a healthy sign for both professors of education and subject fields—and for the institution.

URGENCY FOR ACHIEVING ALL-INSTITUTION APPROACH TO TEACHER EDUCATION

The greatly increased responsibilities placed upon our schools to conserve and develop the nation's intellectual resources to a maximum, the need to resolve the conflict that has raged for a half-century between professors of education and of liberal arts, the necessity of improving the quality of teacher education programs in all areas—all attest to the urgency for achieving an all-institutional approach to teacher

education. Such a procedure can focus the total resources of institutions of higher learning on the task of improving teaching and strengthening schools.

TEACHER EDUCATION: KEY TO SCHOOLS COMPATIBLE TO NATION'S NEED. Weaknesses in our schools are due basically to poor teaching. Quality of teaching depends heavily upon standards of selection as well as the nature and extent of preparation of teachers. To improve our schools, more able college students must be selected to prepare for teaching and higher quality programs of preparation provided.

The nation needs good schools if self-government is to be maintained, freedom insured, and progress in all fields continued. In an age of intelligence, schools truly become the instrument of survival. The amount and quality of education provided all citizens must be raised, and the specialization of the talented student must be intensified. The achievement of both objectives demands higher quality in education.

The urgency to improve education, at all levels and for all abilities, dictates that institutions which prepare teachers give first priority to marshalling their total resources to develop quality programs of teacher education.

RESOLUTION OF CONFLICTS OVER TEACHER EDUCATION. The running war between professors of liberal arts and professors of education in many institutions must end if teacher education programs are to be improved. It stands as a blot against the professional ethics, the personal integrity, and the academic responsibility of participants on both sides of the controversy. In the face of the critical needs to improve the quality of programs of teacher education, institutions can ill afford to have the energies of professors devoted to such degrading displays.

Resolution of the conflict over control of the education of teachers and the nature and extent of the program of preparation will be facilitated by the organization of the institution in such fashion that all professors who help prepare teachers have appropriate responsibility for teacher educa-

tion. Making provisions for such wide participation in the formulation of policies and programs for teacher education will require fundamental changes in institutional organization for teacher education. Fortunately, examples of types of organization which provide for complete or partial achievement of the all-institutional approach to teacher education are available to help guide those colleges and universities which desire to move in this direction.

IMPROVEMENT OF QUALITY IN TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS. Qualitative improvement of programs of teacher education is not likely to result from the adoption of untested theory whether it is advanced by professors of education or professors of liberal arts. It will require systematic and continuing research into such matters as the selection of prospective teachers, the impact of general education, the organization and teaching of subject fields, the process of education and the procedures for developing professional competence in teaching.

The all-institutional approach to teacher education challenges all professors, regardless of their fields of specialization, to join the ranks of teacher educators and blend their intelligence and talents to find better hypotheses and established knowledge upon which improvements in programs of teacher education can be affected. Strengthening of teacher education will be the product of reflective thinking, value judgments, and research, rather than debate; they will be more likely to result from cooperation than from conflict; they will grow out of the contributions of the total institution. The development of high-quality programs of teacher education is the most pressing problem facing the American people today. It deserves first priority in colleges and universities and the attention of the entire faculty.

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